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ABSTRACT

These conference proceedings contain four major papers presented by experts in the field of career guidance theory, with reaction papers written by practitioners. Papers include the following: "Career Development Theories--An Overview" (Edwin L. Herr), with reaction papers by Donald J. Page and Donald G. Zytowski; "The Status of Trait-Factor Theory: Holland's Typology as Cases in Point" (Duane Brown), reactions by Stewart T. Coulson and Bernard R. Dansart; "Gender Influences in Career Development: Motivation for Nontraditional Career and Lifestyle Options" (Linda Brooks), reactions by Ronald M. Bartels and John L. Thompson; and "Using Career Theory in Your Work: A Professional Obligation" (Norman C. Gysbers), reactions by David A. Jepsen and Victor E. Pinke. Presenters' papers include bibliographies. An evaluation of the conference is included in this report. (KC)

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CAREER GUIDANCE THEORY

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CAREER GUIDANCE THEORY

Towers East Dining Hall
University of Northern Iowa

May 8, 1986

8:30 - 9:00	Registration
9:00 - 10:00	Participant Reading on Career Development Theories: An Overview
10:00 - 12:00	A discussion lead by Edwin Herr, Don Page and Don Zytowski
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch (at Towers Dining Hall)
1:00 - 2:00	Participant Reading on The Trait Factor Theory of Career Development
2:00 - 4:00	A discussion lead by Duane Brown, Stewart Coulson and Bernard Dansert

EVENING ON YOUR OWN

May 9, 1986

9:00 - 10:00	Participant Reading on Gender Influences on Career Development
10:00 - 12:00	A discussion lead by Linda Brooks, Ron Bartels and John Thompson
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch (at Towers Dining Hall)
1:00 - 2:00	Participant Reading on Facilitating Career Theory into Career Practice
2:00 - 4:00	A discussion lead by Norman Gyshers, Dave Jepsen and Vic Pinke.
4:00	Adjourn

PREFACE

It is with a great deal of anticipation we welcome you to this Career Guidance Conference. You are being provided a rare opportunity to engage in a dialogue with four of the outstanding national leaders on career guidance. Each presenter has prepared a written document. Two reactors, selected from career guidance leaders in Iowa, have each written a reaction to the major presentation. Reactors have been given the leeway to comment on the papers' direction including strengths, areas of emphasis or omission. The major task of the reaction paper is to enhance discussion among the conference participants.

As a participant you will be asked to read each presentation prior to the scheduled session. Conference time will be devoted to a discussion of the topic. Presenters and reactors will serve as resource leaders to respond to your inquiries.

This conference is jointly sponsored by the Guidance Section of the Iowa Department of Public Instruction and the Guidance and Counseling faculty of the Department of Educational Administration and Counseling, the University of Northern Iowa.

We have high expectations for this conference and welcome your involvement throughout the sessions. May your professional statute be enhanced through your involvement in this conference.

Robert L. Frank
Conference Director

CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORIES: AN OVERVIEW

EDWIN HERR

EDWIN L. HERR

Professor and Head
Division of Counseling and
Educational Psychology
327 CEDAR Building

The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, PA 16802
814-865-6643

EDUCATION

Carlisle Junior/Senior High School	Diploma	1951
Shippensburg State College	B.S., Business Education	1955
Hawthorne School of Aeronautics, Moultrie, Georgia	Certificate of Graduation & Proficiency Pilot	1956
Teachers College, Columbia University	M.A., Psychological Foundations (Minor: Counseling and Student Personnel Administration)	1959
Teachers College, Columbia University	Professional Diploma, Coordinator of Guidance	1961
Teachers College, Columbia University	Ed.D., Counseling and Student Personnel Service	1963
Harvard University	Certificate, Administration of Pupil Personnel Services	July 1967

MAJOR APPOINTMENTS

Assistant/Associate Professor of Counselor Education, State University of New York at Buffalo; Director, NDEA Institutes	8/63-8/66
Director, Bureau of Guidance Services; Director, Bureau of Pupil Personnel Services; Pennsylvania Department of Education	5/66-8/68
Visiting Professor, Institute for the Developing Nations, University of Reading	Spring 1967

The Pennsylvania State University:

Professor of Education and Chairperson, Graduate Programs in Counselor Education	8/15/68-7/1/72
Head, Department of Counselor Education	7/1/72-7/1/76
Acting Assistant Dean for Graduate Studies	9/1/72-12/64
University Director of Vocational Education (Acting)	9/1/72-7/1/77
Acting Director, Division of Education Policy Studies	8/1/73-3/1/76
Interim Dean, College of Education	9-12/74
Professor of Vocational Education (Joint appointment with the Department of Vocational Education)	4/74-Present
Professor and Head, Division of Counseling and Educational Psychology	9/1/76-Present
Director, Addictions Prevention Laboratory	12/78-6/79
Acting Head, Division of Occupational and Vocational Studies	7/1/85-Present

Member, Faculty of the Science, Technology and Society Program	1/1/86-Present
Visiting Fellow, National Institute for Career Education and Counseling, Cambridge, England (Sabbatical leave)	5-8/76
National Faculty Member, Advanced Study Center, National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Ohio State University	2/78-present
Research Fellow, Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, based at Sophia University, Tokyo, Japan	5-6/79

PREVIOUS WORK EXPERIENCES

Construction work, shipping clerk (shoe factory), postal worker, retail sales, U.S. Air Force Enlisted Man and Officer (Honorable Discharge, Captain USAFR).

PREVIOUS PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES

Business Teacher, Teacher-Counselor, School Counselor, Local Director of Guidance, State Director of Guidance and Testing.

PROFESSIONAL SOCIETIES

Treasurer/Secretary, National Board for Certified Counselors (1985-)
President, American Association for Counseling and Development (formerly the American Personnel and Guidance Association (1983-84)
President, National Vocational Guidance Association (1979-80)
President, Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (1974-75)
President, North Atlantic Regional ACES (1969-70)
Member, Board of Directors, American Personnel and Guidance Association (1975-78) (1982-)
Executive Council, International Round Table for the Advancement of Counseling (London and Brussels) (1976-Present)
Member, American School Counselor Association, National Vocational Guidance Association, Phi Delta Kappa, American Vocational Association, Association for Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, Association for Humanistic Education and Development, American Mental Health Counselors Association, International Association for Applied Psychology
Fellow, American Psychological Association
Fellow, Pennsylvania Psychological Association

HONORS AND AWARDS

Awarded Life Membership for Service as President, American Association for Counseling and Development, 1985

Certificate of Outstanding Service for Membership in the National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education, The National Center for Research on Vocational Education, Ohio State University, 1984
Appointed to Honorary Membership on the Swedish National Labor Market Board, 1984
Jesse S. Heiges Distinguished Alumni Award, Shippensburg University, 1984
Award of Appreciation for Leadership in Career Education, Society for the Promotion of Career Education, Alberta, Canada, 1984
Selected by the American Association for Counseling and Development as a Distinguished Contributor to the Profession. Served as the subject of two films in this series.
Honorary "Kentucky Colonel" for leadership in career education in behalf of the Greater Louisville Education and Work Foundation, June 1983
Elected Fellow, Division 17 (Counseling Psychology), The American Psychological Association, 1982
"Award of Pride" for national leadership in guidance and counseling, Pennsylvania Personnel and Guidance Association, November 1982
First Distinguished Achievement Award, New Jersey Career Guidance Association, 1982
Honorary "Arkansas Traveler" for national leadership in guidance and counseling, Arkansas Personnel and Guidance Association, 1982
Yoshida International Education Foundation Lecturer to Japan, 1981
Eminent Practitioner Award, Pennsylvania Personnel and Guidance Association, 1980
Distinguished Professional Service Award, American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1980
Certificate of Outstanding Service, National Vocational Guidance Association, 1980
Professional Writing Award, (Honorable Mention), American School Counselors Association, 1980, 1981
Distinguished Educator for 1979 as selected by the Ohio State University and its Phi Delta Kappa Chapter
Research Fellow, Japan Society for Promotion of Science, Sophia University, Tokyo, 1979
Asian Foundation lecturer to Japan, 1978
First Annual Outstanding Practitioner's Award, Pennsylvania Association of Counselor Education and Supervision, 1977
Visiting Scholar, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, 1977
Teacher of the Year, Iota Alpha Delta, 1976
Outstanding Service Award, Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, 1975
Merit Award, National Vocational Guidance Association, 1976
Ditchley Foundation Fellow to England, 1972
Fellow, Pennsylvania Psychological Association, 1967

PUBLICATIONS

Dr. Herr is the author or editor of 25 books and monographs and, in addition, more than 200 articles, reviews, and book chapters. His most recent books include: (with Evans) Foundations of Vocational Education, Columbus, OH:

Charles Merrill, 1978; Guidance and Counseling in the Schools: Perspectives on the Past, Present, and Future, Washington, DC: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1979; (with Pinson), Foundations of Policy for Guidance and Counseling, Washington, DC: APGA Press, 1982; (with Long) Counseling for Youth Employability, University of Michigan, ERIC-CAPS, 1983; (with Cramer) Career Guidance and Counseling Through the Life Span Systematic Approaches, Boston: Little, Brown, Inc., 1984 (Second Edition).

OTHER PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES

Consultant, Speaker or Workshop Leader for numerous school systems, government agencies, corporations and publishers.

Has served as Journal Editor (Counselor Education and Supervision) and on the Editorial Board of six other journals.

Has served as a visiting professor, researcher, or in other professional roles in international assignments in Canada, England, Greece, Ireland, Norway, Germany, Panama, Switzerland, Sweden, Italy, Japan, and South Africa. Served as coordinator of the Eighth and Ninth International Round Tables for the Advancement of Counselling at the University of Oslo (1978) and the University of Thessaloniki (1980) and the IRTAC Consultation on Career Guidance in Higher Education, Cambridge University, England (1981). Served as coordinator, Tenth International Round Table for the Advancement of Counselling, University of Lausanne, Switzerland (1982).

Licensed Psychologist, Pennsylvania (1974-)

Licensed Pilot, Glider Rated (1975-)

National Certified Counselor, National Board of Certified Counselors, Alexandria, VA (1984-)

Member, 14-person National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education and one of the authors of the Commission Report, The Unfinished Agenda (1984-85). The Commission was selected by and housed at the National Center for Research on Vocational Education, The Ohio State University and funded by the Bureau of Vocational and Adult Education, U.S. Department of Education.

Member, 21-person National Commission on Pre-College Guidance and Counseling, The College Board (1984-), New York

Member, the Governing Council, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) (1983-85), Washington D.C.

Member, 9 member National Panel of Researchers on the Impact on State Government of the Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act, U.S. Department of Education, (1985-).

Career Development Theories - An Overview

The theory and speculation encompassed by the term career development (used interchangably with the earlier term vocational development) includes a variety of emphases or approaches. In general, these approaches attempt to describe why career behavior is different among individuals, how it comes to be that way, and the importance of such behavior in people's lives. Because of the complexity and comprehensiveness of the questions which might be addressed under the broad rubric of career development, different approaches focus on different parts of career development or use conceptual lenses which arise from different disciplines, e.g., psychology, sociology, economics, anthropology.

The areas in which career development research and theory have been interested during the past three decades have become both broader and more specialized. Some theoretical approaches are most concerned with how an occupational choice is made at a particular point in time or the behavioral elements which comprise effective adjustment within a work setting. Some approaches emphasize exploratory behavior; others induction or transition behavior. Some theory and research is concerned with the structure of choice behavior or decision making, work behavior, or other forms of career maturity in a life stage whereas other inquiries are principally concerned with how such structures change over time, and with the continuities and discontinuities in career patterns throughout life. Some approaches emphasize the mechanisms and stimuli which underlie individual action; other approaches address the individual-environmental transactions which emphasize the impact of economic events and social change on individual opportunities to choose.

Because of the large number of research studies and conceptual attempts to explain career behavior it is helpful to attempt to classify the major theories

of career behavior or choice so that they can be contrasted or compared. Observers have developed different ways to classify such theories into categories which make sense to them. There is no one right way to do so.

Classifications of Career Development and Choice Theory

Hilton 91962) classified the early theories of career development as models of attribute matching, need reduction, economic man, social man, and complex information processing. Crites (1969) divided the theories into those which are psychological in origin and those which are non-psychological. Pitz and Harren (1980) have described the theories dealing specifically with career decision making as normative (or prescriptive) and behavioral (or descriptive). Super (1981) has contended that, "The approaches and theories of the past 75 years fall into three main categories: those that match people and occupations, those that describe development leading to matching, and those that focus on decision-making" (p. 8). Holland and Gottfredson (1976) have described the two main approaches to understanding careers as the developmental view and the differential view.

Each of the classification structures cited above have useful characteristics. However, for our purposes here we will use a somewhat different structure which will discuss in sequence theories classified in the following fashion: (1) trait and factor, actuarial or matching; (2) decision; (3) situational or sociological; (4) psychological or personality; and, (5) developmental (Herr & Cramer, 1984). Only the highlights of these classifications of career developmental life style theory will be presented.

Trait and Factor, Actuarial or Matching Approaches

In 1909 Frank Parsons, the "Father of Vocational Guidance," enumerated in his classic book, Choosing A Vocation, his three step process of vocational guidance. As he defined it, that process involved:

> First, a clear understanding of yourself, aptitudes, abilities, interests, resources, limitations, and other qualities. Second, a knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensation, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work. Third, true reasoning on the relations of these two sets of facts (Parsons, 1909, p. 5).

What Parsons outlined beyond a process of vocational guidance, was a trait and factor, actuarial, or matching approach to career behavior. Such an approach assumes that the individual can be described as having certain traits (e.g., interests, skills, aptitudes), that the different occupations or educational alternatives available to the individual require differing amounts and configurations of such traits, and that by matching individual traits and the requirements of different occupational or educational opportunities through a process of True Reasoning (or decision-making) a choice would occur.

The trait-and-factor approach as conventionally understood is not focused on development but on identifying and describing the factors or traits which account for individual differences in learning or in job performance. The logic of the approach, which has origins in differential psychology and has both shaped and been shaped by the psychometric or testing movement in vocational guidance, is that individuals can be conceived of as being characterized by or possessing a constellation of traits which can be observed and measured. Such

traits might include aptitudes, interests, values, psychomotor abilities, energy levels, temperaments, and related characteristics. The assumption is that these patterns of personal traits are more or less unique to each individual in ways similar to the assumption that different occupations or educational experiences can be described in terms of their unique requirements for different combinations or quantities of these individual traits. In essence both the individual's pattern of traits and the requirements for different jobs, occupations or learning situations can be profiled. When these profiles are compared or matched, it is then possible to identify what the individual can do, or has the potential to do, and what the occupation or educational option requires the person to do if he or she is to be successful or satisfied in that situation. It is also assumed that the individual, if he or she knows about his or her personal traits, can order these in some priority ranking and choose in accordance with them.

Trait and factor approaches to understanding and predicting career behavior have been the conceptual underpinnings of many vocational guidance and employment systems since the turn of the twentieth century. They have stimulated the development of tests and inventories to assess individual traits, the use of job analyses and occupational aptitude profiles to create classifications of occupational information, the formulation of predictive systems for assessing the weight or the importance of individual traits in the accomplishment of various occupational tasks, and the establishment of counseling models built upon the availability and use of such information. These are each important contributions to the history and progress of career guidance and career counseling.

The limitations of trait and factor, actuarial, or matching approaches in terms of theory development or practice take several forms. For one, trait and factor approaches focus on individual differences or differences in work and educational environments but they do not attempt to explain how such differences came to be, how they developed. Further, matching individuals and jobs or educational opportunities is frequently a static activity which tends to underestimate either the potential for change in the individual or in the environment or underplays the amount of individual difference a given environment can tolerate. Therefore, at its worst, a trait and factor approach can be overly deterministic unless the individual involved is an active participant in the choice process helping to decide not only what is the best literal fit of individual characteristics and the requirements of different alternatives but rather how available choices accord with the particular person's assessments of what such a fit should be given one's values, personal preferences, and willingness to make commitments at a particular point in time.

Regardless of the criticisms of a trait and factor approach, the information such an approach provides about individual differences and differences in the typical job or educational options available to them has been an important influence on thinking about career development and life style matters. Actually, most of the remaining approaches to career development include trait and factor information but its content and the emphases given to it varies markedly.

Decision Approaches

Approaches which fall within this category tend to be more concerned with the process of decision making, how people choose, than with individual traits or with occupational or educational requirements. Decision theory applied to choice making styles or the processes of decision-making tended to arise from economics and probability models in mathematics. A basic assumption in such a model is that one chooses an educational or occupational goal that will maximize one's gain and minimize one's chance of loss. Having said this, however, is to enter a complicated arena which acknowledges that what each person values or considers gain or loss is likely to differ in degree and in kind. A particular occupational or educational choice might represent very different things to different people: greater prestige, security, social mobility, leisure time. Thus, the value which drives choice is not simply monetary gain but rather a range of other outcomes which differ in importance to different persons.

Another fundamental notion in decision approaches is the assumption that at a point of choice, the individual has several possible alternatives. One may be to do nothing, to avoid the choice options available. Beyond maintaining the status quo, however, it is likely that the individual has several other alternatives or courses of action among which to choose. In each of these alternatives certain events are likely to occur, they have probabilities of occurrence and different value weightings to the individual which can be estimated. If the outcomes of each possible event--success, failure, monetary gain, enhanced happiness or security, admission to a prestigious job, geographical relocation, variety, security--is multiplied by its value to the

person and its probability of happening, the person has a way of determining or, more likely, estimating the alternative which is likely to have the greater sum of value to him or her (Hills, 1964). Many techniques have been advocated by theorists or practitioners to help with this estimation process (e.g., Katz, 1963). Certainly, the rise of values classification exercises and other such career guidance approaches is relevant to helping one clarify or sharpen the ways by which to approach decision-making and the individual values associated with it.

From a theoretical standpoint, however, decision theory approaches have emphasized other concepts which are useful in understanding career behavior. One is the importance of risk-taking style. People differ in their willingness to live with ambiguity and uncertainty of outcomes. Some persons would prefer the security of stable, even if lower, pay and the likelihood of a permanent position rather the possibility of greater rewards cast within a context of variety and tenuousness. Thus, a number of studies within decision theory have examined the developmental influences, the personal histories, and the family or community belief systems which shape risk-taking among people and its effects upon the choices they make.

Another concept of importance in decision making theory is that of investment. One can be helped to conceptualize any choice alternative as requiring both tangible and intangible investments by the chooser, e.g., capital, prestige, time, tuition, union dues, deferred gratification, the risk or stigma of failure. Such investments can be identified and their values to the individual clarified.

A further concept of relevance to decision theory is that of the importance of personal values in choice. Such an approach would suggest that it is not enough to have a close fit between individual traits and occupational or educational requirements, however important that may be to particular persons, such choice making is seen to require an active assessment by the individual of the odds faced in any alternative. Such a deliberation places personal values at the heart of decision making. Implicit in such a requirement is the identification and the definition of one's values: what they are and what they are not, where they appear and where they do not appear (Katz, 1963).

Major views of decision-making tend to combine values, preferences, risk-taking style, and self-concept in various combinations. For example, decisions theory is frequently expressed in mathematical terms as expectancy x value. Many theorists use this type of formulation but weight its elements somewhat differently. Lawler (1973) suggests that all of the theorists using such a frame of reference maintain that the tendency to act in a particular fashion or to implement a particular choice depends on the "expectancy" that the act will be followed by a given consequence (or outcome) to the actor. Lawler than goes on to point out that when people make choices, they are really acting on two types of expectancies. The first has to do with the person's estimate that he or she perform in the way a particular situation requires. The second expectancy has to do with the person's estimate that if the required performance is achieved that it will actually lead to the desired outcome: e.g., money, security, prestige, etc.

A variation on expectancy x value formulations is that embodied in self-efficacy approaches (Bandura, 1977). Such an approach adds focus to the first

expectancy outcome that Lawler identified: whether the individual really believes that he or she can successfully execute the behavior required to perform the desired outcomes. In such a view, the individual's belief about personal abilities and the relationship of previous accomplishments to the requirements of the current choice become elements which differ in magnitude, generality, and strength among persons and across choice situations.

An approach which attempts to apply social learning theory to career selection and in so doing helps to explain some of the factors giving rise to different individual patterns of expectancy x value or self-efficacy has been proposed (Krumboltz, 1979). Krumboltz suggests that the factors most influential in determining career selections are: (1) Genetic endowment and special abilities. (2) Environmental conditions and events. (3) Instrumental and Associative Learning experiences. (4) Task Approach Skills. The interactions among these four types of influencers lead in each individual case to three categories of outcomes: (1) Self-observation generalizations (SOGs)--overt or covert statements evaluating the individual's actual or vicarious performance in relation to learned standards. (2) Task Approach Skills (TASs)--might include such skills as value-clarifying, goal-setting, alternative generaling, information-seeking, estimating, planning. (3) Actions--entry behaviors such as applying for a specific job or training opportunity, changing a college major.

Perhaps of most direct importance to counselors is the influence which decision theory has had on formulating models of the steps important in the choice making process. Such models have been helpful in creating a rationale as well as program themes for individual and group approaches to career

guidance or career counseling and to the creation of computer assisted guidance systems. In varying ways, these models reflect perspectives on expectancy x value considerations, self-efficacy issues, the importance of personal values and a knowledge of alternatives, and a problem-solving process which combines these various elements into a stimulus for systematic actions.

One classic model which emphasizes three elements of the decision-making process and describes the information requirements of each is that of Gelatt (1962). Gelatt's decision model proposes that information is the "fuel" of the decision-maker and that the types of information required depends upon which of three systems essential to decision-making is operating. The three systems are first a predictive system which requires information about alternative actions, possible outcomes of actions, and probabilities of outcomes of actions; second, a valuing system which requires information about the individual's relative preferences among probable outcomes; and third a decision system which requires information about priorities or rules by which the individual wishes to act upon the information analysed in the predictive and valuing systems.

Pitz and Harren (1980) suggest that any type of decision problem can be analyzed in terms of four sets of elements:

1. the set of objectives that the decision-maker seeks to achieve;
2. the set of choices, or alternative courses of actions, among which the decision-maker might choose;
3. a set of possible outcomes that is associated with each choice;
4. the ways each outcome might be assessed with respect to how well it meets the decision-maker's objectives (pp. 321-322).

Bergland (1974) has suggested that the problem-solving steps in a decision-making process might include the following:

- defining the problem
- generating alternatives
- gathering information
- processing information
- making plans and selecting goals
- implementing and evaluating plans

Situational or Sociological Approaches

As we have reviewed them thus far, trait and factor approaches have shown that individuals do differ in traits that are measurable and that have relationships to performance and satisfaction in different occupational and educational settings. The insights included under decision theory in the previous section combine to explain the influences of and the steps in the decision-making process itself as well as; how persons integrate self-knowledge and knowledge of alternatives available to them into a plan of action, a choice. Situational or sociological approaches add a further dimension to our understanding of life style and career development. Such an emphasis is concerned with the fact that individuals do not live in a vacuum; career development and life styles are functions of the transactions which choosers or workers have with their personal environments, e.g., family, community, social class, nation.

Situational or sociological approaches to career development accentuate the reality that one's environment both provides the kinds of choices from which any individual can choose and also directly or indirectly shapes the

likelihood that persons holding membership in different groups are likely to make certain choices, not others. A sociological or situational view of career development suggests that the narrowness on the breadth of the individual's cultural or social class boundaries has much to do with the choices a person is likely to consider, make, or implement. In this sense, the social structure of a family, a school, a community, a work setting or a nation can be seen as both a generator and a filter of information ultimately communicated to an individual (Borow, 1966, 1984). Thus, the information and the encouragement which the poor receive as compared with that available to persons occupying middle or upper socioeconomic clasees is likely to differ in kind and in degree. The sources of information, the role models of successful accomplishment of different educational or work choices, and the subtle forms of reinforcement to value some alternatives or goals rather than others vary throughout the socioeconomic continuum. Similar differences in information and encouragement vary across racial groups, ethnic and religious groups, and between males and females.

Sociological and situational approaches to life style and career development accentuate the reality that one simply can not choose what one does not know about, does not know how to prepare for, or does not know how to obtain access to. Such differences in information and encouragement affect choice making, work adjustment, and life style patterns.

To understand the functioning of or, indeed, the latency of any given individual's psychological characteristics--traits--it is important to consider the characteristics of the social grouping, the geographical setting, the historical period in which the individual has been born and reared. It is the social context

which influences the self-image or, in the words of decision theory, one's feelings of self-efficacy with regard to various types of performance, the ranking of the personal traits one is likely to use in work, the educational and occupational alternatives one is likely to know about or consider appropriate, and the financial and psychological resources one is likely to have available.

Sociological or situational perspectives provide insight into the family and historical influences upon risk-taking behavior and the choice outcomes which different people value. If one's basic survival needs--e.g., food and shelter--have been met erratically it is easy to understand why that person chooses jobs which offer stability and a secure, if modest, income. If one's family values have constantly reinforced a set of behavioral standards to be achieved in order to avoid tarnishing the family name or being considered unworthy of the family's support, it is understandable that one's motivation will differ from another whose environment has reinforced other behavioral standards. If one's gender or one's race have been obstacles to access to certain opportunities, it takes an extraordinary amount of desire, persistence, and ability to gain access to such opportunities. Sociological or situational perspectives address the probability that while vocational and life style preferences of people across social and economic class lines may be similar, their expectations of being able to achieve such preferences are likely to differ. The person raised in an environment which does not support planfulness or commitment to long range goals, which does not value deferred gratification as a price one pays to achieve better skills or to save for a better future, which does not provide knowledge of how to cope effectively with the environment is going to experience different aspirations and career development of a different character than an individual who experiences none of these environmental characteristics.

Sociological and situational perspectives have a long and important history in their probing of the effects of social class on occupations chosen and on other characteristics of the acquisition of work identity and career mobility (e.g., Hollinghead, 1949; Hoggart, 1957; Lipsett, 1962; Blau, Bustad, Jessor, Parnes, & Wilcock, 1956). Indeed, recent sociological perspectives have raised questions about whether the emphases in many current career development theories on the primacy of individual action and value preferences is valid. Roberts (1977), taking a sociological perspective, raises the implicit question as to whether people choose or are chosen; the latter conditions are a function of their socioeconomic status, class boundaries against certain opportunities, or levels of aspiration, and related phenomena.

The probable answer to Roberts' question is that some people choose their occupational and life style roles; others do not. Increasingly, research studies are reinforcing the view that the kind and quality of exploratory experiences, understanding of work opportunities, decision-making and related elements of career behavior are experienced differently by groups which differ on socioeconomic, gender, and racial terms (Herr, Weitz, Good, & McCloskey, 1982; Herr, & Enderlein, 1976). The work of Lo Cascio (1967), Gribbons and Lohnes, and Herr and Cramer (1984) has shown that career development is not a smooth, linear progression to upward mobility. Rather there are different patterns of continuity and discontinuity, of delay, and impairment associated with economic advantagement or disadvantagement, gender, differences in educational and intellectual level. These again are sociological or situational phenomena.

Personality Approaches

Sociological or situational approaches to career development and lifestyle are, in a sense, macro approaches. They describe the social mechanisms within which individual action is possible or by which it is circumscribed. Personality approaches might be considered micro approaches, attempts to identify individual as opposed to group mechanisms which shape career behavior.

Personality approaches, as compared to the four other categories of career development theory discussed in this chapter, emphasize needs and drives intrinsic to individual personality which choices of work are consciously or unconsciously intended to satisfy. For example, they contrast with the trait-and-factor approach, which emphasizes observable and measurable behavior (rather than inferred states as in the personality approaches) to explain the motivations of people to choose and to behave as they do.

The advocates of intrinsic, need or drive, motivation come from a variety of conceptual origins. Certainly, those who favor Freudian psychoanalytic approaches to the explanation of work choice and adjustment would favor intrinsic drive states as stimuli to select one form of work rather than another (e.g., Bordin, Nachman, & Segal, 1963; Brill, 1948).

But there are other theorists--e.g., neopsychoanalytic, self-theorists--who also embrace a need-drive explanation for much of career behavior. The general assumption among such approaches is that because of differences in personality structure, individuals develop specific needs and seek satisfaction of these needs through occupational choices and selection of work settings. The further assumption is that different occupational or educational areas are populated by people of different needs or personality type. In the personality

approach, one of the major features is a self classification, either conscious or unconscious, by which persons seek out environments which are likely to gratify their particular need profile.

Roe (1956), for example, is a theorist whose personality approach to career development bridged psychoanalytic and self theory approaches. Her approach had three major aspects. First, she adopted the theory of prepotent needs formulated by Maslow (1954) to vocational behavior. Oversimplifying the matter, the assumption is that persons tend to select work which reflects gratification of the level of needs which they feel most urgent or not routinely gratified from among such need categories as psychological, safety, belongingness and love, self-esteem, information, beauty and self actualization. A second dimension of Roe's work is an emphasis on the effect of child rearing practices upon adult orientations to or away from people and things. Her basic premise was that child-rearing environments that were overprotecting, democratic, or rejecting shaped differently the kinds of interactions people have with other people--toward or away from them--and with things. In turn, these interactions were seen as manifested in adult interest patterns related to choice of occupational families. The third aspect of her work was to delineate a two-dimensional classification of occupational groups by field and level. The eight fields in which all occupations were grouped included Service, Business Contact, Organization, Technology, Outdoor, Science, General Culture, and Arts and Entertainment. These fields were classified by the degree to which they gratified needs involving people or things. The second dimension, that of level, included six different levels of responsibility, training or education including professional and managerial I and II; semiprofessional, small business;

skilled; semiskilled; and, unskilled. The assumption of Roe's theory was that the occupational level attained is a function of genetic endowment as reflected in intelligence, education attained, and capability for responsibility; the field chosen is a function of one's interest or non-interest in people or things.

Holland's approach (1966; 1973) is currently the preeminent and most empirically based personality approach. It gives major and explicit attention to individual behavioral predisposition and personality type. A basic assumption of the Holland approach is that as a result of the interaction between heredity and environment, the individual develops a hierarchy of habitual or preferred methods for dealing with social and environmental tasks; these preferences are reflected in one's modal personal orientation. This modal personal orientation or behavioral style, is classified into one of six personality categories--artistic, conventional, enterprising, investigative, realistic or social. Rather than being pure types the theory advances the notion that most persons can be classified in some distribution across three of the personality types, e.g., Realistic-Enterprising-Investigative (RIE), and that one will then seek occupations or educational settings which satisfy and are compatible with the hierarchy of preferences the individual possesses.

The other part of the Holland equation is classification of the environment in ways comparable to classification of personality. The assumption is that because people seek out and gravitate to settings where others are seen as sharing one's values and interests with regard to work activity, leisure time, and so on, specific occupations or educational units tend to attract persons of similar personality types. As a result, different occupations or curricula are populated to a larger degree than other

occupations with persons of a particular personality configuration. In this sense, it is possible to consider occupations and other environments as being classified into the same six types as is personality: artistic, conventional, enterprising, investigative, realistic and social. Changing career patterns, occupational or educational maladjustments, and other choice or adjustment difficulties could be explained by Holland's theory by suggesting that people who have certain patterns of preferences or certain behavioral styles achieve in some occupational or educational settings and not in others. Therefore, the role of career counseling or guidance is to match as congruently as possible, the personality style and the characteristics of the work or educational setting. If this does not occur persons will either need to take on the characteristics or role requirements of the occupations they have chosen or leave it to continue seeking for a role which is congruent with their particular values, needs, and workhabits.

Holland, like Roe, also identifies level hierarchies within occupational environments. According to him, the level of occupational responsibility or skill which one gravitates to is dependent upon the person's intelligence and self-knowledge. Self-knowledge refers to the amount of accurate self-information the individual possesses; self-inowledge is different from self-evaluation, which refers to the worth the person attributes to him or herself.

Holland's theory (1973, pp. 2-10) can be summarized by its emphases that individual behavior is a function of the interaction between one's personality and one's environment, and that choice behavior is an expression of personality. Thus, persons inhabiting specific environments, occupational or educational, have similar personality styles or modal personal orientations, and their

responses to problems, work values and interpersonal situations are likely to be similar. Therefore, the choice problem is how to locate and gain access to those environments which permit people to express their personality styles. As persons explore occupational or educational possibilities, they rely on stereotypes about themselves and about their choice opportunities to guide this search. If their preferences are clear and their information about self characteristics or occupation is accurate, they will likely make effective choices. If their understanding of their personality type or appropriate occupational choices is unclear, they are likely to be indecisive and vacillate among possible choices.

Developmental Theories

In their own fashion, each of the preceding perspectives focuses on some aspect of the implied assumption that persons are better suited for some occupation or job families than for other occupational possibilities. The personality and trait-and-factor approaches attempt to identify the bases on which such individual differences in occupational fit might be identified. The decision approaches speak more directly to how people choose whatever they choose. The sociological approaches stress the importance of the social structure in determining what kinds of information and encouragement people of different socioeconomic, gender or racial backgrounds are likely to receive, how this affects their likely awareness and consideration of alternatives, and how such social factors influence continuity and discontinuity in individual career development. The developmental approaches tend to include many of the concepts advanced in each of the first four perspectives but do so with particular emphasis on the unfolding of career development across the life span.

The developmental approaches have expanded the vision of researchers and theorists from occupational choice as an act to occupational choice as a process. Such a view reinforces the perspective that choice is not confined to a certain period of life but has its roots in the early life of the child and reoccurs throughout one's life span, changing its premises in response to institutional, social, and economic pressures.

Ginzberg (Ginzberg, Ginzberg, Axelrod, & Herma, 1951) and his colleagues were among the first theorists to give voice to career development and life style patterns as longitudinal processes. They asserted that "occupational choice is a developmental process; it is not a single decision but a series of decisions made over a period of years. Each step in the process has a meaningful relation to those which precede and follow it" (p. 185).

Using a developmental process as their organizing premise, Ginzberg, et al. identified a series of life stages in which certain factors which ultimately relate to occupational choice are faced by preadolescents and adolescents. These stages were labeled fantasy, tentative, and realistic, and each of these was in turn broken into substages. For example, the tentative period was divided into interest, capacity, value and transition substages which emerge sequentially. Each of these factors tend to emerge in turn and serve to further filter the alternatives one will consider. The tentative period is followed by the realistic stage which is broken into exploration and crystallization substages. A major point which emerged from these perspectives in the original Ginzberg et al. work was that as children, adolescents and adults cope with the tasks, self-insights, and information about the alternatives available to them in these different life periods, there is a constant compromising between wishes and

possibilities. This synthesizing and compromising process in turn defines, filters, narrows, and makes more specific and realistic the range of choices which a particular individual is likely to consider. He and his colleagues originally viewed the process of filtering out alternatives as generally irreversible and as occurring predominantly during adolescence.

In a restatement of his theory in 1972, Ginzberg modified his original premise in several ways. First, he no longer emphasizes that choice-making ends in adolescence or young adulthood; he now sees decision-making as a process which continues throughout adulthood. Second, he has tempered his early view that the developmental processes of choice are irreversible. His recent work suggests that the individual may return to alternatives earlier reflected as personal circumstances change to accommodate such possibilities. Finally, he has replaced the earlier notion of compromise as a major aspect of choice with the concept of optimization. While subtle in their differences, optimization really suggests more individual power to constantly try to improve the occupational fit between their changing selves and circumstances.

Perhaps the developmental approach which has received the most attention and been the most encompassing in its influence upon research and theory in career development and life style matters is that of Super and his colleagues. While the work of Super became visible at approximately the same time as that of Ginzberg and his colleagues, Super's influence has been more wide-ranging and sustained than that of Ginzberg. Many of the insights and refinements has evolved from a longitudinal study of the vocational behavior of a group of ninth grade boys which began in the early 1950s and followed these persons into adulthood. Known as the Career Pattern Study, this longitudinal

research of the same individuals from early adolescence into the late thirties became the crucible in which many of the ideas of Super and his colleagues have been tested.

Super's approach (1957; 1969; 1977) is in many respects, a multidisciplimary approach. In formulating his theoretical constructs, Super has integrated insights from differential, developmental, social and phenomenological psychology with those from trait and factor, sociological, and personality approaches into an organized whole.

Perhaps the best known aspect of Super's theory is his life stage structure which incorporates developmental tasks in five periods across the life span. These life stages include growth (from birth to approximately 14 years of age), exploration (ages 14 to 25), establishment (ages 25 to 45), maintenance (ages 45 to 60) and decline (age 60 and beyond). Each of these stages is divided into substages which identify developmental tasks which individuals must confront and master if their career development is to proceed effectively. For example, during the exploratory stage the developmental tasks of major importance are crystallizing a vocational preference, specifying it and implementing it; in the establishment stage, the years of early adulthood, the developmental tasks of importance are stabilizing in the chosen vocation, consolidating one's status, and, subsequently, advancing in the occupations. Each of these tasks and those in other life stage are broken down further into the behaviors and attitudes which comprise them.

Associated with a life stage/developmental task structure which spans one's life are several other important concepts. One of these is vocational maturity, now typically labeled career maturity. This concept conveys the

notion that there are certain behaviors which are descriptive of the individuals' mastery of the developmental tasks associated with each life stage. Thus, one can think of career maturity as both a structural and a developmental concept because while the elements of career maturity can be identified and assessed for particular life stages, the elements of career maturity also change in different life stages.

Such notions of the structure of career maturity as well as its forms are reflected in the major assessments of it. For example, the adolescent and adult forms of the Career Maturity Inventory, (Crites, 1973) and the Super et al. (1971) secondary school and college forms of the Career Development Inventory and the more recent Adult Career Concerns Inventory. These assessment instruments are used to "diagnose" or appraise the individual's career development in comparison with others in his or her life stage and with respect to specific elements of career maturity at that life stage. For example, the Career Development Inventory, either the school or university form, developed by Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Jordaan and Myers, (1979) has eight scales. They include career planning; career exploration; decision-making; world of work information; knowledge of preferred occupational group; career development attitudes; career development, knowledge and skills; career orientation total. The Career Maturity Inventory, developed by Crites, has separate Attitude and Competency scales. The clusters within the Attitude scale include involvement in the choice process; orientation toward work; independence in decision-making; preference for choice factors; and conceptions of the choice process. The scales or clusters embodied in each of these assessment instruments is mentioned to illustrate what are conceived to

be examples of career maturity in different forms of these career development instruments.

Assessments of career development or of the concept of career maturity are important in Super's theory because they accent the importance of identifying and acting upon instances where career development has gone awry or is not as mature as it might be. The fundamental assumption of this perspective is that if a person experiences a lack of information or deficit in a reality-testing at a particular life stage, he or she is not likely to cope with certain later developmental tasks and thus their career development may be impaired or delayed. Such people may flounder in one developmental spot or they may prematurely close off their consideration of training opportunities or occupational choices because of a lack of self-knowledge, planning or an array of other possibilities. According to the theory, such circumstances do not reflect the quality of career development persons are capable of achieving.

With respect to the characteristics of career (vocational) maturity, Super (1977) now postulates that the same five factors are important in midcareer as is true in adolescence. They include planfulness or time perspective, exploration, information, decision making and reality orientation. The important point is that while the sets of factors are important in career maturity at either of these time periods, the tasks, the topics to be explored, and the kinds of information needed by 40 year-old adults differ from those of persons in adolescence. Such a view reaffirms the notion that individual career maturity is an important goal in each life stage but that its behavioral elements are likely to change across time and such changes need to be reflected in career development assessment instruments.

Another key construct in Super's theory and research is that of the importance of the development and implementation of the self-concept. The theory assumes, in fact, that the individual chooses an occupation which will allow him or her to function in a way that is consistent with one's self-concept. The self-concept in effect represents a shaper of and a trigger for individual behavior. Thus, career guidance nd counseling need to attend to the individual's need for in-depth and accurate information about occupational alternatives but, at least as importantly, the individual needs to be assisted to avoid unrealistic estimates of ability and vague understanding of personal values and preferences.

One final aspect of Super's theory will be mentioned here although much more deserves to be said. This aspect of his recent formulations speak quite directly to the matter of life style issues in career development. Super (1980; 1981) has suggested in his formulation of a Life-Career Rainbow, that most people play nine major roles in their life. In approximate chronological order they include: (1) child (son or daughter), (2) student, (3) leisurite, (4) citizen, (5) worker (including unemployed worker and nonworker as ways of playing the role), (6) spouse, (7) homemaker, (8) parent, and (9) pensioner. These roles are played in four principal theaters of life: (1) the home, (2) the community, (3) the school (including college and university) and (4) the workplace. The constellation of roles and their interactions constitutes one's career.

Super suggests that the fact that people play several roles at the same time and in several theaters indicates that occupation, family, community, and leisure roles affect each other. He states that "Success in one facilitates success in others, and difficulties in one role are likely to lead to difficulties in

another" (1980, p. 287). He further suggests that, "The simultaneous combination of life roles constitutes the life style; their sequential combination structures the life space and constitutes the life cycle. The total structure is the career pattern" (1980, p. 288).

Other developmental theorists

There are other theorists who deserve more attention than space permits here. One of these is Tiedeman, who with other colleagues, has advanced some important ideas influencing the way career behavior has been viewed by other researchers and by practitioners. For example, Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) described the intersection of the anticipation of an occupational choice and the actual induction into the occupation chosen. Many other theorists have been concerned primarily about the exploration or anticipation of choice but not what happens when one tries to implement what has been chosen. According to Tiedeman and O'Hara the stages of the occupational induction process include the stages of social induction, reformation, and integration. In such a perspective it is assumed that the individual at the point of occupational induction has a set of ideas about what it will be like to work in that occupation. Such ideas have been developed during the anticipation process which includes stages of anticipation, exploration, crystallization, choice and clarification. The test of the effectiveness of such anticipation lies with whether one's ideas about the occupations chosen are congruent with the reality of the occupation when the person is inducted into it. In any induction process, there is some give-and-take between the individual and the environment (these are the stages of reformation and integration) in which the individual modifies his or her self-concept to take on the role requirements of the job expectations

encountered and the job bends to some degree to the individual's style. If the demands of the job for reformulating one's self-concept, are within individual tolerances for such reformulation, induction is likely to be successful. If, on the other hand, the demands by the job for accommodation by the individual goes beyond personal limits of tolerance or adaptation, the individual is likely to leave the environment and reinstate the processes of exploration and anticipation.

Tiedeman and O'Hara also emphasize that career (vocational) development is a continuing process of differentiating ego identity. In this aspect of their formulation, they use Erikson's (1963) model of psychosocial crises' at seven developmental stages as an explanation for differences in career development. Throughout their theoretical perspectives, they stress the intimate interaction of the self-concept and the career concept as they develop over time through many small decisions.

In his more recent work, Tiedeman with others (e.g., Dudley & Tiedeman, 1977; Peatling & Tiedeman, 1977; Tiedeman & Miller-Tiedeman, 1977) has been increasingly concerned with emphasizing the power of the individual to create a career and in advancing notions of autonomy, competence and agency as major ingredients of such processes. In so doing, Tiedeman and his colleagues are increasingly emphasizing the holistic nature of the human career, and the need to see career and the process of career development as one.

One of the major and fairly recent phenomena in developmental approaches to career development and life style issues is a move from generic theories of career development to theories which look more directly at certain populations. For example, the work of Knefelkamp and Slepitza (1976) blends a

developmental and cognitive approach to focus on the career development of college students. In addition, a large number of theorists have begun to look at the career development of specific adult populations (Levinson, 1977; Gould, 1978; Lowenthal et al., 1976).

Many of the perspectives on career development for adults emphasize the important affects which various types of transitions have on career development. Schlossberg (1978), a leading adult theorist, has summarized the work of a number of other adult theorists into five propositions that have relevance to career development and life style issues.

1. Behavior in adulthood is determined by social rather than by biological clocks.
2. Behavior is at times a function of life stage, at others of age.
3. Sex differences are greater than either age or stage differences
4. Adults continually experience transitions requiring adaptation and reassessment of the self.
5. The recurrent themes of adulthood are identity, intimacy, and generativity.

Watts (1980) contends that there are at least three models for looking at the needs of adults for career guidance. One which addresses developmental stages in the life cycle as these are related to various periods of chronological age. In such a perspective the role of career guidance would be to help persons adapt to the requirements of the developmental tasks characteristic of each stage. A second model focuses upon roles. This model views aging as a process of learning new roles and relinquishing old ones. The career guidance response here would involve periodic stock-taking about roles and about the interactions

and transitions between them. The third model focuses on life events which involve significant transitions. Here the career guidance role is one concerned with "coping with crises and realising the growth potential that may be innate within such crises" (p. 20).

In sum, this paper has tried to illustrate the multiple factors that shape the processes and create the content of career behavior and the resulting life style patterns by which different people are characterized. As Jepsen (1984) has observed, "Theoretical ideas serve an indispensable function in career guidance practice, especially in the fundamental tasks of problem identification and intervention design. Formal career development theories provide perspective for framing practical problems" (p. 153-154). Hopefully, the previous sections will have helped the practitioner think in such terms.

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February 1966 - Present Kirkwood Community College Cedar Rapids, Iowa	Various positions including: Director, Student Services; Director Master Planning; Dean, Educational Services; currently Associate Dean Student Affairs & Director, Counseling/ Placement.
September 1963 - February 1966 Franklin Junior High School Cedar Rapids, Iowa	Counselor
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1975 - Present	Maytag Foundation: Scholarship Selection Committee.
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Outstanding Contribution Award from Iowa Community College Student Personnel Association (1975)
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PUBLICATIONS

Changes in Selected Demographic Characteristics of Iowa Community College Students 1970-74, unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Iowa, 1975.

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Reactions to

"Career Development Theories - An Overview"

By Ed Herr
Penn State University

Prepared for the UNI Conference
May 8-9, 1986

By Don Page,
Kirkwood Community College

These remarks come from the perspective of one who has been in the trenches for many years. My first counseling position came in 1959 as a high school counselor. So for nearly 27 years I have been trying to make a difference with people as they sort out their lives and make decisions. The last twenty years have been with Kirkwood Community College in various positions. This will not be an erudite, scholarly, orderly reaction to Dr. Herr's paper. My comments stem largely from a different perspective...from the viscera...from my gut.

As a practitioner, there are times when I stop and think about why I behave as I do in career counseling. I often explore with clients why they do what they do, as well. But I find my behavior with clients most often seems to be based on intuition, not theory. For me, counseling has become more art than science; but there's theory in there someplace.

This assignment was important for me to accept. I don't often read theory because it is difficult and requires thought. Now I was forced to do so; and the result is that I find myself "curiouser and curiouser".

Is there clearly a logical, empirically-proven rationale for career counseling that works for most, if not all clients? Can behavior of clients be predicted? Is there a best path for me and my client to follow? Can I do a better job if I adopt an operational style based on a formalized theory? Having an obligation to complete this task gave me an opportunity to think about what I

do within a theoretical framework.

On the other hand, the task assigned, that of reacting to Dr. Herr's paper, was in some ways an impossible one, and consequently I'm sorry that I agreed to it. Who am I to presume to criticize this renowned scholar, anyway? I sure don't have all the answers. The instructions were certainly not restrictive..."your reactions may take any direction you desire." Most of the time I was working on this, my only reaction was that Dr. Herr's paper was interesting, comprehensive, potentially useful, and certainly well written. How does one critique that?

But another instruction received was that my paper was to "enhance discussion among participants..." So I decided to set caution and good sense aside and go ahead and look for things that might inspire discussion; to play "devil's advocate."

My feelings about Dr. Herr's paper are completely different now, after an intensive study of his paper than they were after my first cursory reading. I have read Dr. Herr's paper several times, and studied it carefully. I must say that each reading gave me new insights and understandings. My initial reaction was that there was a lot I could criticize, but that position grew less and less tenable with repeated readings. I commend to Herr's readers <u>thorough</u> study, not a quick and casual onceover.

My initial impulse on reading Dr. Herr's paper was a need to define what a "theory" is. I don't want to be caught up in discussion on semantics, but I need to know just what is meant by a theory?

Is it a rationale to support our choice of interventions? Or does it explain some intrinsic, basic Truth about human nature? Instead of "theories" isn't Dr. Herr's paper simply an exposition of different processes, or styles of operation by which we attempt to justify what we do?

Webster (the Seventh New Collegiate) defines "theory" as follows: "1: the analysis of a set of facts in their relation to another 2: the general or abstract principles of a body of fact, a science, or an art (music) 3: a plausible or scientifically acceptable general principle or body of principles offered to explain phenomena 4a: a hypothesis assumed for the sake of argument or investigation b: supposition, conjecture c: a body of theorems presenting a concise systematic view of a subject 5: abstract thought: speculation. syn see hypothesis."

Which of these meanings fit the use of the word "theory" in Dr. Herr's paper? Perhaps it is #3, "a plausible body of principles offered to explain phenomena." What about 4c; "a body of theorems presenting a concise systematic view of a subject." Perhaps the differences between theories are not in substance or of value, but in focus and viewpoint.

Let me put this another way. What is being described in Dr. Herr's paper?

1) Attempts to explain the behavior of individuals as they proceed in the activity of career development? or
2) An explanation of alternative approaches for counselors to

use as they assist individuals in the activity? or

3) Justification for doing what counselors do? or

4) Something else?

I admit that I still don't know.

A minor criticism of Dr. Herr's paper is that of classifying theories...putting them into categories. As Dr. Herr himself says concerning theory classifications, "There is no one right way to do so." I think the approach breaks up the paper nicely, but for me it added little to the substance.

The need to classify and sort, however, is a human characteristic. But I'm reminded of the ultimate classification system: There are two classes of people; those who put people into two classes and those who don't.

Perhaps my problem is that my orientation is too idiographic. It bothers me a great deal to attempt any generalizations about persons, and it seems to me that any attempt to develop any generalizable theory of human behavior is doomed to failure. As someone once said, "no generalization is worth a damn, including this one."

Rather than categorizing and classifying the theories, and treating them as stand-alone entities; I would have found it more useful to describe the impact of various positions on the ultimate, the developmental approaches. It would have called for less choosing up of sides and of valuing.

As I read Dr. Herr's paper the first time, I found myself embracing each theory as it was described. "That makes sense to me," crept

into my consciousness as I read each, until the next one came up. Then I dropped the old theory in favor of the new. The fact of the matter is that each position held some merit. Dr. Herr's descriptions are clear and concise, and I believe he has captured the essence of the theories cited.

One quarrel that I have with the presentation is the implied position that some of the theory types were outdated and of value perhaps only as historical antecedents. I'm certain that there are many career counselors who subscribe to one or another of the approaches described as necessary and sufficient. I use a form of the "old" Parsons model for instance, to describe to clients the basic three step process of career choice; increased knowledge of self, increased knowledge of the world of work, culminating in a merger of these new understandings into a rational decision making process. I usually find it helpful to add a fourth dimension, however; blocks to making changes and choices. This was described in Irving Brandel's model in the December 1982 issue of the P & G Journal. The concept of blocks to change seems to me to explain a lot about why the process is complex. In any case, the matching model is still a good basic approach to use in describing the process. It's simple, easy to understand, and captures a lot of the essence of career choice.

I'm afraid, however, that some persons engaged in career counseling have not got beyond this very basic model. I think about the testing advocates who support the contention that you can match a test profile to a career. I believe that the matching approach

gives unwarranted credibility to testing. Those who know very little about such things as standard error of measurement put undue value on test results. In this regard I refer to faculty and to the clients themselves. Our tests simply are not that perfect. I see this played over and over in the institution where I work. Dr. Herr's point is that this approach can be overly deterministic unless the individual involved is an active participant in the choice process. I would add that it can be overly deterministic even when the client is involved.

I was initially taken aback by Herr's placement of Roe and Holland in the personality approaches. However, I now see the efficacy of such placement, since they rely on basic personality categorizations. It bothered me to some extent because theories of personality often unduly label people. Such theories seem to put people into virtually unchangeable pigeon-holes. I have been and continue to be a proponent of Holland's typology and this theoretical framework (if not carried to the extreme). I do not believe, however, that such personality variables are rooted deeply in the subconscious and modifiable only through deep dish therapeutic means. The impact of situational factors, changes in information bases, etc., all have an effect on the personality structure of an individual and his/her interaction with the environment. Furthermore, education in general and counseling in particular owe their existence to the fact that individuals are capable of change.

However, Dr. Herr's paper implies that only the developmental

theories give credence to the concept of occupational choice as process rather than an act. He states the "developmental approaches have expanded the vision" of the other theorists in this regard. I do not see that level of rigidity in the other theoretical constructs. Any student of human behavior must believe that change throughout a persons life is a very real phenomenon. It may be only that the developmental theorists have articulated better the longitudinal nature of career development. The vision of re-occurring process rather than an individual discrete act of occupational choice encompasses my own position. It is basic to my functioning as a career counselor that the only constant is change.

Is eclectic another name for the developmental approaches? Since these theories draw on all the others that seems to be an appropriate conclusion.

The theories which Herr cites do not cover all cases. In fact, my experience is that the majority of adults reach a career decision in another way. What about the persons for whom no one provides interventions? There are career choosers who "go it alone", with no trained counselor (armed with a theory) to help. It seems to me none of the theories respond to that concern.

Perhaps the theory that explains what happened to these persons is one that can be labeled serendipity; or luck. Many of the folks with whom I deal in career change tell me that they just happen on their current career. They need a job and take the one that is available at the time. This seems particularly true in blue collar

and office careers. Many of the people in question come to a counselor initially looking for a job, not a new career or occupation. In a great many cases it is only because they lost their job. Their first career choice was made when they answered an ad right after they graduated from high school, and they anticipate the same forces to work again. The problem right now is that there aren't any ads to answer. So we can "trap" them into career counseling. The promise of finding something that satisfies their interests, values, unfulfilled dreams, etc. is nearly impossible for them to pass up. Then we can talk together about interim or stop-loss jobs while they move into a new, potentially more satisfying occupation.

I must admit that serendipity does little to provide a framework for rational, planful approaches to career counseling. But I do believe it explains how some people make career choices.

I was disappointed that there was not more made of the relationship of theories of career development to a more global view of human development. A counselor perception of the human condition certainly has an impact on which theory of career development one espouses. For instance, a phenomenologist who believes a client's perceptions are more important than "reality" might have difficulty settling on a theoretical basis for career development. Such topics were not discussed in Dr. Herr's paper, but should they?

It was fun to once again become acquainted with theory, and to be forced to think about it. My final conclusion, as a pragmatist, is when all is said and done, it just may be that it doesn't matter

much which one of the theories you adopt as your own. The point is whether or not your clients have some sort of framework within which to arrive at reasonable choices. Ultimately, are they satisfied with what they have decided? Are they comfortable with their direction? Do they feel they've been helped through a very difficult time? Did what you went through together work? If they can walk away from you answering yes to these questions; and feeling they don't ever <u>need</u> to see you again, you've done your job, regardless of your theoretical orientation.

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A.B. Ed.	1952	Harris Teachers College, St. Louis, MO
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Certification: Licensed (#195) Psychologist, State of Iowa
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Fellow, American Psychological Association, 1976

PROFESSIONAL WORK EXPERIENCE

Institution: Iowa State University, Ames, IA

Title: Counseling Psychologist, Student Counseling Service
Dates: 1965 to present
Title: Assistant Director, Student Counseling Service
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Title: Acting Director, Student Counseling Service
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Title: Senior Counselor, Student Counseling Service
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PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

American Psychological Association, Division 17; 5
American Association for Counseling and Development
Association for Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development
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PUBLICATIONS (selected)

Zytowski, D. (Ed.) (1968). Vocational Behavior: Readings in Theory and Research. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Zytowski, D. (1969). Toward a theory of career development for women. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 47, 660-665.

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Zytowski, D. G. (1978). Vocational behavior and career development, 1977: A review. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 13, 141-162.

Zytowski, D. G. (1981). Counseling with the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey. Chicago: Science Research Associates.

Zytowski, D. G. & Borgen, F.H. (1983). Assessment. In S. H. Osipow and B. Walsh, (Eds.), Handbook of Vocational Psychology. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Zytowski, D. G. & Kuder, F. (in press). Advances in the KOIS. In S.H. Osipow and B. Walsh, (Eds.), Advances in Vocational Psychology: Interest Measurement. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum.

Offices, Appointments (selected)

Consulting Editor, Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1970-present.

Consulting Editor, Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1976-1982.

Editor, Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 1977-1980.

President, Association of Measurement and Evaluation, 1979-1980.

President, Division 17 of APA, 1983-84.

A Response to Herr's Overview of Career Theories

Donald G. Zytowski

Iowa State University

Professor Herr's overview of the major theories of career behavior is certainly without fault-- I have not read so succinct and cleanly drawn a recapitulation. He has covered most of the important points of view about how people go about attaining an occupation and arranging for their work lives. I plan to ask my students to read it.

Moreover, Ed really integrates the scope of career theories. For instance, I had not realized how Lawler's expectancy theory links to Bandura's concept of self-efficacy. (Although I wonder why neither of them cites the earlier theoretical ideas of Vroom (1964) on the same topic.)

While Ed's overview of theory is quite well done, you and I, as practicing counselors, know that his material lacks a certain relationship to what really goes on as we talk with our clients. We, and Ed and the theorists he reviews, have diverged somewhere. He, and they, have developed their perspectives from their offices and libraries, while you and I have operated from our little rooms, with our clients and their real-life concerns. They are thinkers; we are doers. I'd like to ask Ed if he has sat down with a young person to help him or her select a reasonable vocational goal out of several possibilities, each possessing its unique combination of tangible and intangible rewards and costs. I think we could reasonably ask Don Super how he would talk with a person

trying to deal with such realities as the declining opportunity in the Iowa of the 1980s. We might ask John Holland when he last listened to a middle-aged woman faced with returning to work after a long hiatus from paid employment, or a middle-aged man whose job has been lost to foreign competition. While theory is crucial to the practice of good counseling, my day-to-day efforts to help people in every stage of their career development might be useful to the development of good career theory. I can identify several places where theory falls short and my practice suggests some additions, or where we need help and little of it seems to exist, even in the fact of these finely constructed theories that Ed has so carefully delineated.

Occupational Salience

The first place where I think theories of career development falls short of practice is in the matter of people for whom occupation, much less career, is not the most important thing in their lives. Only recently has Super (1980) begun to recognize the possibility that there are many roles in life, and that occupation, at different periods of the life span, can occupy a large or small space compared to other roles. Extending Super's concept, I am sure that there are people for whom occupation is never very important, or as he says it, "salient." Their "choice" or job or occupation is likely adventitious, and may not reveal any pattern that we would label developmental. It would seem that their satisfactions in life do not come from their occupational performance, but perhaps only from what they performance enables: the latest model

Camaro they can afford, or the hairstyle and makeup that will attract the attention, if not the approval, or their peers.

I sometimes feel wounded that our theories imply that these people are slightly defective for their lack of conformity to theoretical ideas of careers. After all, these are the people who make our shoes, who clean our hospitals, who issue our drivers' licenses... Why can't our theories acknowledge them, too?

The Process of Compromise

While Super (1957) notes that career development encompasses a process of reality testing, my impression is that what he envisioned consists of a series of small successes, resulting in a synthesis of self and opportunity. My position in a university counseling center gives me the opportunity to observe small and large failures in the process of reality testing, and often calls upon me to assist in the process of compromise between aspiration and performance. A theory which is not widely known, that of Gottfredson (1981), has attempted to address the process by which young people move from idealistic choices, perhaps reminiscent of the fantasy stage of vocational development, to realistic, for them, possibilities.

Like Super, Gottfredson argues that persons progress through a number of developmental stages during which new elements are incorporated into their self-perceptions. Somewhat in contract to Super's theory, these self-perceptions subsequently limit the range of occupational alternatives that are acceptable to the person. Gottfredson specifies

these elements as sex role (that is, how "masculine" or "feminine" an occupation is acceptable), status level, and personal characteristics, such as values and especially interests. Compromise is based on these elements.

According to Gottfredson, compromise is required of individuals who are unable (for such reasons as lack of some requisite ability or other resource) to enter an occupation they might have declared as their choice. To develop new alternatives, individuals must sacrifice some aspect of their previous choice. Ordinarily, interest area is the first sacrificed, as in changing from engineering to business, preserving status level and gender composition of the prior choice. If this compromise does not produce acceptable and accessible prospects, then status will be sacrificed, such as changing from engineering to tool-and-die making, while gender composition is maintained intact. If this compromise fails to produce alternative possibilities, then gender composition would be sacrificed, as in a change from engineering to teaching.

The only test of Gottfredson's ideas that I have seen is by Pryor and Taylor (1985). They asked some 250 Australians from high school through adulthood what alternatives they would seek if faced with the need to compromise their preferred occupation. They found that the typical response was to sacrifice prestige level and maintain interest field and occupational sex composition, not supporting Gottfredson's hypotheses.

One would have to wonder shether Australians think and act like the North Americans who provided the research data on which Gottfredson

developed her ideas.

I wonder if the kind of compromise is dependent upon the field of the original choice-- I have found physical science students most willing to sacrifice interest field and maintain status, but students whose original choice is in social sciences most willing to sacrifice gender composition. I wish I knew what distinguished people elect different routes of compromise. I wish I knew what methods of assisting the compromise process were most effective. If I had a better grasp of the process, perhaps I'd be able to forego the old standby interest inventory, and simply suggest a few likely occupational areas for exploration.

Clients' Implicit Theories

We practitioners know that clients hold views on the nature of career behaviors which, were they made explicit, might sum up to a theory. In my experience, an important postulate in their implicit career theory is the same as that expressed in Holland's-- that better occupational adjustment ensures when one's characteristics are fitted to, or match the needs and requirements of an occupation. From Holland's Self-Directed Search one can see that he conceptualizes characteristics in two terms; skills, abilities, or competences, and preferences or interests. I find that many of my clients reduce the factors to one only-- interests-- saying that they want my help to ascertain their true interest pattern so that they can achieve at their highest level. They are reluctant to inventory their skills, or measure their abilities, saying that they can do anything if they want to badly

enough.

Knefelkamp and Slepitza's (1976) cognitive-developmental model of career development elaborates this implicit theory in their description of the dualistic position of thinking about careers. Dualistic thinkers believe that there is only one right career for them, and that external factors define correct career desigions. They rely on parents, or when parents fail, on counselors and interest inventories, and exhibit only minimal processing of such factors. I'm sure you know students who are well-described by this paragraph.

The career planning of these dualistic thinkers would be facilitated if they could ascend to what Knefelkamp and Slepitza describe as a relativistic position. At the most highly heveloped level, called commitment within relativism, students see themselves as prime movers in the process, and are able to forge for themselves a role that extends beyond the confines of a simple job description. They can integrate diverse components into a complex occupational whole. They realize that they can define their role, rather than be the passive occupant of a stereotypical job description. The problem with Knefelkamp and Slepitza's theory is that it offers utterly no guidance as to how the counselor can facilitate development from one level or position to another. So while it might be helpful to us to understand our clients' implicit theory as strictly dualistic and grounded in only one factor, the counselor is left with no tools to change it.

As you may have concluded by now, I believe that our career theories

supply excellent models for understanding where individuals may be in their career development, and/or what they need to do in order to advance to the next stage. Regrettably, those theories overlook a sizable portion of the population, they are prescriptive in the sense that they do not agree with what people actually do, and most to the point, they tend to fall short of helping us, the helpers, help them.

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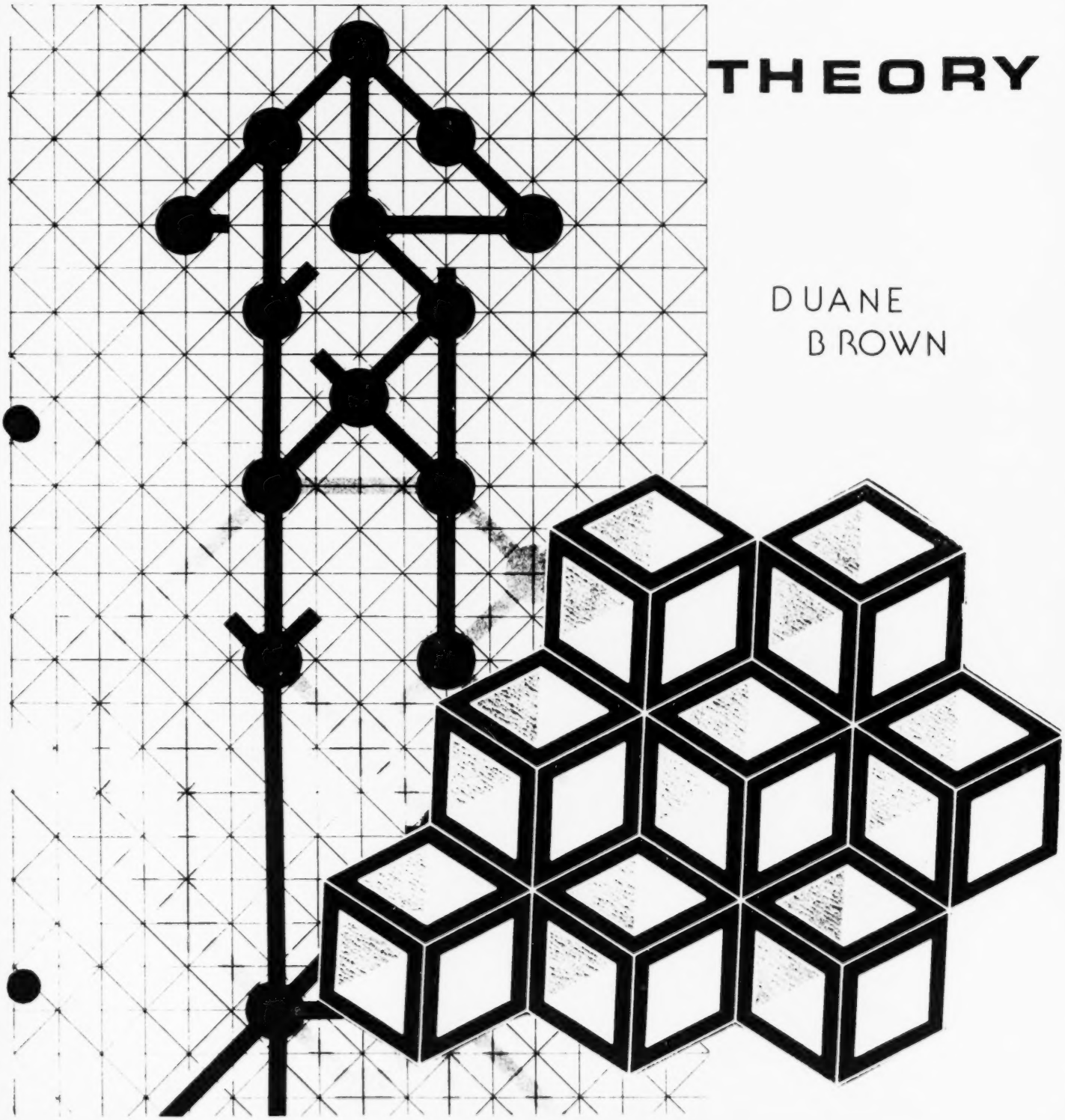
TRAIT-FACTOR THEORY

DUANE BROWN



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B. Formal Educational Background

	Major	Degree	Date
Owensville H.S., Owensville, Indiana			1955
Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana	Education	B.S.	1959
Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana	Education	M.S.	1962
Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana	Counseling Minor- Psychology	Ph.D.	1965

C. Vocational Experience

Place of Institution	Assignment	Date
Spiceland H.S., Spiceland, Indiana	Vocational/Biology Teacher	1959-62
Indiana State Department of Public Instruction	Field Supervisor of Counseling	1963-65
Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana	Instructor	Summer 1965
Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa	Assistant Professor	1965-68
Gannon College, Erie, Pennsylvania	Visiting Professor	Summer 1966 1968-73
Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa	Visiting Professor	Summer 1967, 1969

West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia	Associate Professor Counseling & Personnel (Clinical Associate in Elementary School Counselor's Institute)	1968-71
	Chairperson, Department of Counselor Educ.	1971-73
University of North Carolina Chapel Hill, N.C.	Associate Professor & Coordinator	1973-75
	Professor & Coordinator of Counseling Psychol.	1976-80
	Staff Member, University Counseling Center (Part-time)	1978-1980
	Chairperson, Division of Human Development & Psychological Services	July 1980 to June 30, 1984
	Professor of Counseling Psychology	July 1, 1984

D. Licenses and Certification

1. Nationally Certified Career Counselor
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II. TEACHING

A. Major responsibility in the Counseling Psychology program for group counseling and consultation courses. Also teach introductory course, career development, and organizational courses for students in M.Ed. program in Counseling.

III. PUBLICATIONS

A. Books

1. Student's Vocational Choice: A Review and Critique, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1970.

2. Changing Student Behavior: A New Approach to Discipline, William C. Brown Company, 1971.

3. Guidance Concepts and Practices: An Introduction, William C. Brown Company, 1972, with David J. Srebalus.

4. Selected Readings in Contemporary Guidance, William C. Brown Company, 1973. Co-editor with David J. Srebalus.

5. Survey of Social Science. New York: McGraw Hill, with G. D. Brown, 1975.

6. Consulting with the Classroom Teacher, with S.D. Brown, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1975.

7. Consultation: Strategy for Improving Education, Allyn Bacon, 1979 with Marvin D. Wyne, Jack Blackburn and Conrad Powell.

8. Psychological Consultation: An Introduction to Theory and Practice, with W. Pryzwansky & A. Schulte (In press).

9. Career Choice and Development: Applying Contemporary Theories to Practice, 1984, Jossey-Bass, with Linda Brooks (Eds.) 486 pp.

10. Introduction to the Counseling Profession, Prentice Hall, with D. J. Srebalus (under preparation).

B. Articles in Journals, Book Chapters, Reviews, Technical Reports

1. Motion Pictures: A Source of Vocational Information, The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1963, 12, 68-71, with Edward L. Higgins.

2. Attitudes of School Personnel Toward Teachers' Role in the Guidance Program, The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1966, 15, 259-262.

3. Pseudo-Guidance Programs in Our Schools, The Bulletin of the NASSP, 1966, 50, 43-48.

4. Guidance Workers' Use of Assigned Guidance Time, The School Counselor, 1966, 14, 90=93, with Rolla Pruett.

5. The Elementary Teacher Views Guidance, The School Counselor, 1967, 15, 6-10, with Rolla Pruett. Reprinted in Elementary School Guidance. Selected Readings. Edited by Eugene Kopitz, William C. Brown Company, 1968.

6. Trends in School Administration: Impact Upon Guidance Administrator, Counselor Education and Supervision, 1967, 6, 191-196.

7. Does Teaching Experience Matter? Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1968, 47, 893-897, with Bettie H. Peterson.

8. Principals' Perceptions of Counselors Without Teaching Experience, Counselor Education and Supervision, 1970, 9, 99-105, with G. Hopper and S. Pfister.

9. A Comparison of Counselor, Counselee and Supervisor Ratings as a Means of Rating Counselor Effectiveness, Counselor Education and Supervision, 1969, 8, 113-118 with Merilyn Cannaday.

10. The Teaching Experience Prerequisite for the School Counselor--An Examination, The School Counselor, 1968, 16, 17-20, with Bettie Peterson. Reprinted in Introduction to Guidance, edited by Bruce Shertzer and Shelley Stone, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1969.

11. Counselee's Ratings of the Effectiveness of Employment Service and Prospective High School Counselors, Journal of Employment Counselors, 1968, 5, 123-126, with Maureen Sie.

12. Toward Determining a Counselor-Pupil Ratio for Elementary Schools, Elementary School Guidance and Counseling Journal, 1969, 4, 276-284, with Sylvia Hathaway.

13. Children's Interests and Their Mother's Perceptions of Those Interests, Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 1970, 2, 168-173, Virgie Andre.

14. The Year of the Expert, Counselor Education and Supervision, 1970, 9, 93-98.

15. The Bell Adjustment Inventory: A Potential Counseling Inventory with the Mentally Retarded. Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, 1970, 13, 288-294, with Ella Jones.

16. Non-Verbal Behavior: Key to More Effective Counseling, Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, with J. C. Parks, 1972, 15, 176-184. This article has been reprinted in three books of readings.

17. The Good Group - A Research Report, 1973, Office of Education (with many others).

18. Chapter - Implications of Research for Career Development and Vocational Choice, in Selected Readings in Contemporary Guidance, Brown,D. and Srebalus, D.J. (Eds.), William C. Brown Company, 1973, 203-207.

19. Career Education: The Counselor's Role, School Counselor, with Stephen Feit and Robert Forestandi, 1973, 20, 193-196.

20. Educating Group Counselors: A Proposed Model, with E. Jacobs and A. Randolph, Counselor Education and Supervision, 1974, 13, 307-309.

21. Invited Book Review: Organization and Administration of Pupil Personnel Services for The High School Journal, 1975.

22. An Investigation of Intelligence, Self-Concept, Socioeconomics Status, Race and Sex as Predictors of Career Maturity, Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1976, 9, 43-52 (with W. Lawrence).

23. Issues in Education, Popular Government, July 1978, with G. B. Stuck

24. Open vs. Traditional Approaches to Education, Forum of Open Education, Fall 1977, with G. B. Stuck.

25. Parental Consultation: A Behavioral Approach, Elementary School Guidance and Counseling Journal, 1975, 10, 95-102, with S. D. Brown

26. Making Job Placement Work, Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1978, 27, 176-183, with S. Feit.

27. Invited Book Review: Career Information in Teaching and Counseling for Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1978, 56, 724-725, with Howard Splete.

28. Invited Book Review: Decision Making Counseling for The School Counselor, 1979, 27, 147-148.

29. A Needs Assessment Manual with Jay Van Hoven and K. Fulkerson (looks at determining family, career, leisure and community service needs of adults), GRITS Project, UNC-CH, Chapel Hill, NC, 1979.

30. A Profile of the Sociodemographic and Psychological Characteristics of Rural Female Leaders, with K. Fulkerson, S. Furr, and N. Voight. Unpublished paper, GRITS Project, UNC-CH, Chapel Hill, NC, 1979.

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32. Life Planning Workshop. The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, September 1980, Vol. 29, No. 1, 77-83.

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34. Emerging Models of Career Development Groups for Persons at Mid-Life. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1981, 29, 332-340.

35. Self-Estimate Abilities in Black and White Eighth, Tenth and Twelfth Grade Males and Females with Katherine Fulkerson and Marilyn Vedder and William Ware. The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1983, 32, 21-28.

36. Predicting of Career Maturity, Occupational Aspirations and Occupational Expectations of Black and White Male and Female Tenth Graders, with David McNair. The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1983, 32, 29-36.

37. Locus of Control, Sex Role Orientation and Self Concept in Black and White Third and Sixth Grade Male and Female Leaders in a Rural Community with S. Furr and K. F. Fulkerson, N. Voight and William Ware. Developmental Psychology, 1984, 20(4), 717-721.

38. Expectancy and Achievement Among Third, Sixth and Ninth Grade Black and White Students with S. Furr and K. F. Fulkerson. Developmental Psychology, 1983, 19, 231-236.

39. Introduction to Career Development Theory and Practice with Linda Brooks. Chapter in Career Choice and Development: Applying Theory to Contemporary Practice, Duane Brown and Linda Brooks (Eds.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 1984. 1-7.

40. Career Change at Midlife. Chapter in Career Choice and Development: Applying Theory to Contemporary Practice, Duane Brown and Linda Brooks (Eds.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 1984. 369-388.

41. Trait and Factor Theory. Chapter in Career Choice and Development: Applying Theory to Contemporary Practice, Duane Brown and Linda Brooks (Eds.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 1984. 8-30.

42. Summary, Comparison and Critique of Major Theories. Chapter in Career Choice and Development: Applying theory to Contemporary Practice. Duane Brown and Linda Brooks (Eds.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 1984. 311-336.

43. Trends and Issues in Career Development. Chapter in Career Choice and Development: Applying Theory to Contemporary Practice, Duane Brown and Linda Brooks (Eds.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 1984. 406-416.

44. Projections of reactions to stress and preference for helpers among students from four ethnic groups. Journal of College Student Personnel. With J. E. Pliner. 1985. 36(2), 147-151.

45. Career counseling: Before, after, or instead of personal counseling. Vocational Guidance Quarterly. 1985. 33(3), 197-201.

46. The preservice training and supervision of consultants. The Counseling Psychologist. 1985. 13(3), 410-425.

47. Co-edited special issue of The Counseling Psychologist with DeWayne Kurpius. Consultation. 1985. 13(3).

48. Smith, A., & Brown, D. (In Press). Developing an anti-smoking program. The School Counselor.

49. Brown, D., & Brooks, L. (1985). Career counseling as a mental health intervention. Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 16(6), 860-867.

50. Brooks, L., & Brown, D. (1986). Career counseling for adults. In Palmo, A., Weikel, W. J., & Brooks, D. Jr. (Eds.), Foundations of Mental Health Counseling. Springfield, IL.: Charles Thomas.

51. Monson, R., & Brown, D. (1985). Secondary school counseling: A time for reassessment and revitalization. NASSP Bulletin, 69, 32-36.

52. A predictive validation of the Career Decision Making System. Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, with William Ware and Sandra T. Brown. 1985. 18, 81-85.

53. Jackson, D., & Brown, D. (In Press). A test of STEP as a parent education vehicle in elementary schools. The School Counselor.

C. Submitted for Publication

1. Rotberg, H. L., Brown, D., & Ware, W. B. (under review). (See attachment for title.) Journal of Counseling Psychology.

2. Kaplan, D., & Brown, D. (under review). The role of anxiety in career indecisiveness. Journal of Counseling Psychology.

3. Brown, D., & Schulte, A. (under review). A social learning model of consultation. Professional Psychology: Research and Practice.

IV. RESEARCH AND GRANT WRITING ACTIVITIES

1. A study of the characteristics of Iowa school counseling programs. Funded by Iowa Department of Education, Vocational Education Division, $12,000, 1966.

2. The Good Group. Funded by HEW, $10,000. Looked at the parameters of encounter groups, 1971.

3. Received approximately $20,000 for help to implement career education programs in West Virginia, 1979-72.

4. With W. H. McKelvie, wrote two proposals and received $60,000 from LEAA to develop workshops for correction officers.

5. Consultant: National Evaluation Study of Upward Bound and Talent Search, 1973-74, Research Triangle Institute, NC.

6. Developing a Model Elementary School Counseling Program, $225,000, 1973-76. Implemented as a field based program in Moore County.

7. Guidance Research and In-Service Support System for Rural Women and Girls, $159,000, 1978-80, with Nancy Voight and K. Fulkerson.

8. Career Counseling and Placement for Handicapped Students, Title IVC. Projected-funded $33,000 year I. $55,000 for 1981-82.

9. Proposals for Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education ($192,000) and the Z. Smith Reynolds Foundation produced in 1984 (1,053,000). Both rejected.

In Progress

10. A validity study of the Harrington-O'Shea CDM Interest Inventory with S. Brown & W. Ware.

11. A comparative study of the SDS & CDM with Courtland Lee, Richard Blackwell & William Ware.

12. Replication of study on self-efficacy as a variable in career choice making, with Heidi Rotberg and William Ware.

V. SELECTED PROFESSIONAL AND SERVICE ACTIVITIES

A. Institutional

University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

1. Executive Committee, School of Education.
2. Chairperson - School of Education Governance Committee, 1978-79.
3. University Faculty Welfare Committee, 1979-1981.
4. Merit, Appointment and Promotion Standards Committee, 1979-80.
5. Teacher Education Advisory Committee, 1980 to 1982.
6. Chaired committee to study microcomputer needs in School of Education, 1982.
7. Affirmative Action Committee, 1983.
8. Promotion, Reappointment, Tenure Committee, School of Education, 1985.
9. Academic Standards Committee, 1985-
10. Human Subjects Committee, 1985-
11. School of Education Governance Committee

B. Professional

1. Professional Organizations

a. American Association for Counseling and Development.
b. Association of Counselor Educators and Supervisors.
c. National Vocational Guidance Association.
d. American School Counselor's Association.
e. North Carolina Association for Counseling and Development.
f. American Psychological Association (Division 17 - Counseling Psychology).

2. Professional Honors/Activities

a. Elected Council-Person-at-Large NCVGA, 1974.
b. Elected Secretary-Treasurer NCVGA, 1975.
c. President of NCVGA, 1977-78.
d. Recipient NCVGA Roy N. Anderson award for outstanding work in Career Guidance, 1981.
e. NCACES Certificate of Merit, 1981.
f. President of NCACES, 1983-84.
g. Editorial Board The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1982 to present.
h. Editorial Board, Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 1983 to 1985.
i. Received awards for meritorious services from NVGA 1983 and both NVGA and ACES 1984.
j. NCACES certificate of merit, 1985.
k. President-elect NCACD 1985-86/President 1986-87.
l. President-elect-elect National Career Development Association.

3. Selected Professional Activities (Since 1973)

a. Consultant - Cabarrus County (Concord, NC) - Elementary Counseling Project, 1973-74.
b. Consultant LSU School of Education and Frotburg College on Career Education, 1973.
c. Consultant to Chambers, Stein, Ferguson and Becton, Attorneys at Law, 1976-78.
d. Consultant to Cumberland County Schools, Rocky Mount Schools, N.E. Regional Educational Office, 1976-79.
e. Consultant Administrative Office of the Court - Individual and Group Counseling for Court Counselors, 1975-79.
f. Presented two papers at 1980 APGA convention: "Models for Mid-Life Career Exploration" and "Should Mental Health Counselors be Licensed Psychologists?"
g. Evaluation Consultant, College of the Albemarle, Elizabeth City, NC, 1980-81.
h. Desegregation team - City of Chicago - In-Service Training Component, 1981.

i. Career Education Consultant Robeson County Schools, 1981-82.
j. Presented paper APA Los Angeles 1981 - Self Estimate Ability of Adolescents.
k. NVGA Commission Chairperson, Mid-Life Career Planning, 1980-1982.
l. Co-chairperson NVGA Commission on Equalization of Employment Opportunity, 1982-83, with L. Sunny Hansen.
m. Chairperson NVGA FS/SD Commission, 1983 to 1985. Chair, ACES Task Force on Consultation, 1982-84; currently member.
n. Presentation APGA Convention 1983 Supervision of Consultants in Training.
o. Presentation Behavioral Consultation at National Elementary School Guidance and Counseling Journal, Columbia, S.C.
p. Presentation Career Options for School Counselors. N.C. School Counselor's Association, November, 1983.
q. Member NVGA Committee on Credentially Career Counselors 1983-84.
r. Wrote "articles" for NJCG Newsletter, NCACES Newsletter, NCPGA Newsletter, NVGA Newsletter, 1983-84.
s. Presentation at AACD Convention: Introducing students to models of change, 1983.
t. Consultant South Orange/Maplewood, NJ School District, 1983-84.
u. Consultant JSTC, Keenansville, NC, 1983 to 1985.
v. Member ASCA Research Committee 1984-1986.
w. Co-chair NVGA Leadership Development Committee with Sunny Hansen, 1984-85.
x. Chair - Consultation Interest Group NCACD, 1984 to present.
y. Presentation SACES - Training Consultants, Nashville, 1984.
z. Presentation NCACES - Practical Issues in Training Consultants. Charlotte, 1985.
aa. NCACES Profesional Standards Committee, 1984-85.
bb. Presented "Career Counseling as a Mental Health Intervention," NCACD convention, Greensboro, NC, 1985.
cc. Chairperson SACES Consulting in Business, Industry and Education Interest Network, 1985-86.
dd. Member SACES Standards Review Interest Network, 1985-86.
ee. Speaker NIEHS "Building Productive Work Environments," May 1985.
ff. Louisiana Board of Regents review team for doctoral programs in Education, May 1985.
gg. School Counselor as a Consultant, SACES Convention, Atlanta, 1985.
hh. Establishing a Consultation Private Practice, SACES Preconvention Workshop (1 of 4 speakers) Atlanta, 1985.
ii. Author of numerous articles for NCACD Newsletter, 1984-85, 86.
jj. SDPI Vocational Education Advisory Committee, 1986-88.

kk. Consultant, Beachwood, Ohio Schools, 1986.
ll. NCACD Convention Coordinator, 1986.
mm. Co-Presentor Trends and Issues in the Counseling Profession, NCACD Convention, 1986.
nn. Invited Lecturer/Instructor Career Development Theories, VPI, Spring, 1986.
oo. Invited Paper/Presentation, The Status of Trait and Factor Theory, May, 1986, University of Northern Iowa.
pp. Contributor, Consultation Interest Network Newsletter: "The Skills Needed by Effective Consultants." Feb. 1986.

4. Professional Improvement (recent)
   a. Completed course on programming microcomputers, 1982.
   b. Audited EDFO 286 Multivariate Statistics, Summer, 1983.
   c. Audited developmental and organizational psychology courses, NCSU, Fall 1983.
   d. Completed IBM sponsored workshop on writing educational software, 1986.

The Status of Trait-Factor Theory: Holland's Typology as Cases in Point

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Chapel Hill

March 25, 1986

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the current status of trait-factor theory and to speculate about its future, both as a theoretical position and as a basis for practice. It may be a surprise to some that this topic is even being addressed at all since there have been announcements of the demise of trait-factor theory by leaders in our field (e.g., Crites, 1981; Osipow, 1983; Weinrach, 1979), attacks on its theoretical structure (Carkhuff, Alexik, & Anderson, 1967), and charges that it is mechanistic (Tiedeman & Miller-Tiedeman, 1984). However, as I have asserted elsewhere (Brown, 1984), trait-factor theory is alive and well and like Srebalus, Mainelli, & Messing (1982), I believe trait-factor theory is the leading influence on the practice of career counseling and perhaps in some other areas as well (e.g., research).

At the outset, it is necessary to develop a common understanding of trait-factor theory. I find that many stereotypes exist regarding the theory, some resulting from individuals not keeping abreast of the theoretical developments in this area and others resulting from the Rogers-Williamson debate of the sixties where the former was the "good guy" and the latter the "bad guy." Williamson once told me that he regretted participating in these debates because they resulted in a considerable misunderstanding of his position (Note one).

Trait-factor theory sprang from differential psychology (Williamson, 1972), which was devoted to empirically measuring individual differences in capacities and aptitudes, often employing the technique of factor analysis to identify traits. Initially, traits were viewed as biologically based and as such, unchanging (Hogan, DeSoto, & Solano, 1979). However, trait theorists

abandoned this position in favor of one that views traits as learned, and as such, subject to change (Anastasi, 1983; Tryon, 1979). Another aspect of trait theory has evolved during the past 50 years. The contemporary position regarding traits is that they have validity only in regard to specific situations such as the performance of an occupational task. Originally, single traits were viewed as having a pervasive influence upon the functioning of the individual (Brown, 1984a). One position that has not changed is that traits, particularly those of greatest interest to career counselors (e.g., interests, aptitudes), are relatively stable (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Hogan, DeSoto, & Solano, 1977; Holland, 1985; Williamson, 1972).

There are five other characteristics of trait-factor theory that deserve attention before the major task of the paper is tackled. The first of these is that traits are not assumed to be independent from each other. Needs, aptitudes, values, and sensorimotor abilities interact to direct behavior in characteristic ways known as personality patterns (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Williamson, 1972).

Second, while not overlooking the importance of subjective ways of knowing about the individual, trait-factor theorists value the quantification of data, both about the individual and the environment. This objectification takes the form of personality and interest inventories, aptitude tests, values surveys, and environmental measures. As Williamson (1972) notes, quantification of data is in keeping with the scientific method, precision can be improved through quantification, clarity of communication about individuals can be enhanced, and groups of people can be described at one time (as opposed to only one). Williamson summarizes this point by stating "To a very substantial extent the trait-factor theory underlying counseling is based upon

the assumption that significant data, although not necessarily all relevant data, are yielded by objective instruments---" p. 154.

Third, trait-factor theorists seek external validation of their constructs. These are sought for the most part in specific situations such as work or educational environments. The approach used is comparing the individual to a reference group in those environments (e.g., workers in an occupation of interest).

Fourth, trait-factor theory is interactive in nature. Environments influence the personalities of the individuals in them, and individuals in attempting to implement their values and fulfill their needs act on the environment. The exact result of the interaction will be a product of the congruence of the individual's and the environment's characteristics (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Holland, 1985; Williamson, 1972).

Fifth, from Parsons (1909) to the present, trait-factor theoretists have assumed that the average or typical individual has the innate ability to make adequate decisions if both personal and environmental data are available to them. Parsons called this true reasoning. Williamson (1939, 1965) and Holland (1973, 1985) and other trait-factor theorists realize that not every person possesses the capacity to make good decisions because of lack of experience or because of psychological problems. However, not one of them has offered much in the way of assistance to overcome faulty decision making.

Critique

This critique will focus upon Holland's (1985) theory of vocational personalities and work environments because of its prominence in the field of career choice and because of its relevance to the audience. However, Dawis and Lofquist's (1984) work adjustment theory could also have been chosen as a

case in point since it follows trait-factor principles quite clearly.

The basis of these comments has been drawn from the philosophy of science, particularly that portion related to theory building. The works of Reynolds (1971) and Snow (1973) were used to develop a set of criteria for evaluating trait-factor theory to which I have taken the liberty of adding one of my own. Good theories, according to the aforementioned experts, should be (1) clearly stated, (2) parsimonious, (3) explain important phenomena, (4) comprehensive, (5) generate empirical inquiry, (6) aid in the explanation, prediction of, and eventually, the control of the phenomena being explained, and (7) account for data generated after its development as well as current information. To this, I have added that a theory should provide a guide to practice since given the current state of empirical evidence in the area of career development and counseling, practitioners could not be expected to rely upon verified data as a guideline to practice. I agree with Stefflre and Grant (1972) that "nothing is as practical as a good theory" p. 2, particularly when it is used as a hypothesis about a domain of events rather than as a testament to the way the world functions.

Is this clearly stated?

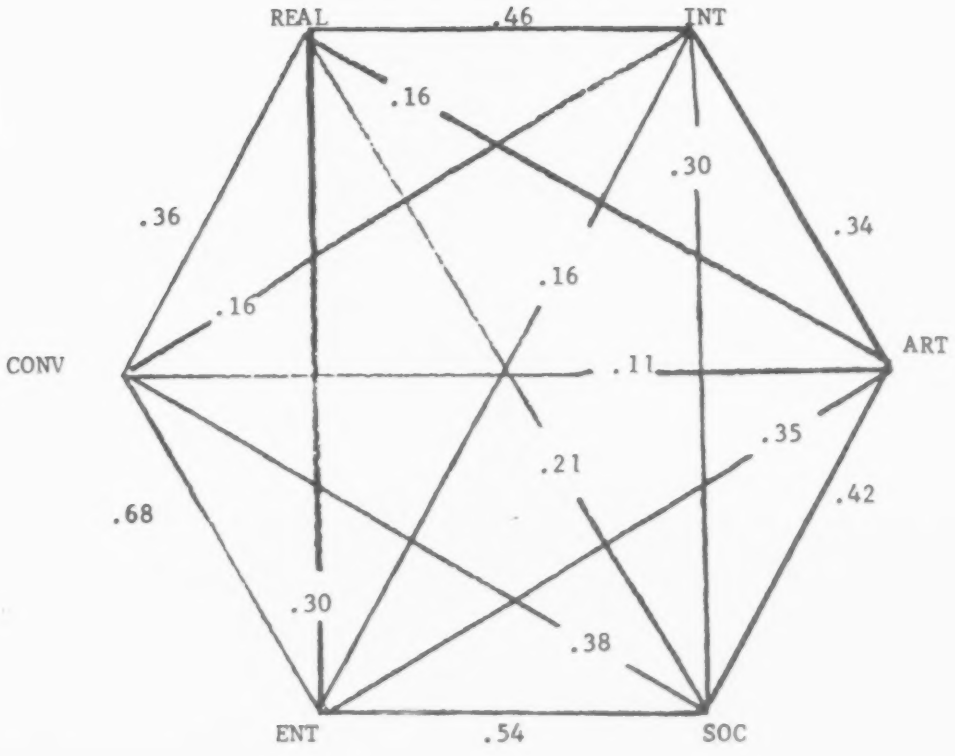
A theory that meets this criteria is characterized by explicitly defined constructs and by a careful articulation of the hierarchical and temporal relationships among constructs, and if induced, laws of postulates. For the most part, trait-factor theorists have always gotten high marks in the area of defining constructs. Because of the intense interest in scientifically measuring traits, constructs have always been defined meticulously in the past. Holland (1985) follows in this tradition even with regard to his new construct, identity, which is defined carefully for both individuals and

environments.

Holland also receives accolades for his presentation of the typological relationships among his constructs of personality and environmental types. His now famous hexagon depicts these relationships quite nicely. However, the new construct of identity is not well integrated into this theoretical statement, particularly as it relates to consistency or differentiation.

Consistency, the reader may recall, is attained in either personality or environment and if the pattern that results from the assessment has common characteristics as is defined by the relationship of these variables in the hexagon (see Figure 1). Differentiation is the numerical difference between an individual's highest and lowest scores on one of Holland's scales. Both consistency and differentiation are meant to be measures of clarity of self perception as is the new construct, identity. Operationally, identity is measured by the Identity Scale of My Vocational Situation. This scale measures "the clarity of a person's vocational goals and self perceptions and is positively associated with having a small number of goals that belong to a small number of mean categories" (p. 28). Holland goes on to indicate that identity, consistency, and differentiation may be considered as estimates, not only of clarity of personality, but the variety of personality repertoires an individual will portray. So far, so clear! However, the clarity ends with the suggestion that identity may be more useful as an indicator of persons with well defined personalities than either differentiation or consistency and that a counselor or researcher can use one or all of the concepts. The obvious question is, "If one is potentially better, why not recommend its use." Holland later indicates that the influence of identity in the person-environment interaction is unknown, which may explain the tentativeness

Figure 1: A Hexagonal Model for Defining the Psychological Resemblances Among Types and Environments and Their Interactions



Source: Holland, J.L., Whitney, D.R., Cole, N.S., and Richards J.M., Jr. An empirical occupational classification derived from a theory of personality and intended for practice and research. Figure 3, ACT Research Report No. 29. Iowa City: The American College Testing Program, 1969.

of his position, but not his optimism about the construct.

What is also a little puzzling about Holland's discussion of the interaction of construct consistency, differentiation, and identity is that at the outset, Holland (1985) notes that the concept of consistency has been "demoted" in his theory because of its failure to find empirical support. One could speculate that because of the importance of the construct of consistency to Holland' formulation and its failure to gain empirical support, the development of the identity construct is an attempt to "prop up" the theoretical model. It may also be an emerging theoretical construct that cannot be fully articulated with the other aspects of the theory at this time. The question remains, "What is the hierarchical and or temporal relationships among the constructs of consistency, differentiation, and identity in individuals?" What is likely is that these three constructs are indicators of a single phenomenon which is not well defined at this point.

While the relationship among identity, consistency, and differentiation in individuals is a bit murky, the definition of identity in organizations is totally muddied by the introduction of constructs such as behavior settings (number of occupations within a work setting) and manning theory and failure to show how these relate to the consistency and explicitness of environmental goals, the most basic measure of environmental identity.

It also appears that Holland, while differntiating in his narrative (p. 35) between organizations and work environments, confuses the two in his postulates about organizational behavior. For example, he states "Well-defined organizations will be more likely to have members with higher levels of involvement and satisfaction" p. 44. He has laid no groundwork for this prediction (unless one equates organizations or work environments).

Neither has he provided a basis for the prediction that organizations that are extremely well defined or diffuse would be expected to have shorter lifetimes than those organizations that are moderately well defined (or diffuse). Many public institutions (universities) have extremely diffuse goals and have lasted for a very long time.

One weakness of most trait-factor theorists is their rather vague formulations about the way personality develops. Holland (1985), like his contemporaries Dawis & Lofquist (1984), has a similar weakness. His latest statement reiterates much of what was said earlier about the development of personality, including the pronouncement that to some extent, parental type is transmitted to children. He also suggests that there is a small inherited component in the development of types. According to Holland, children also act to create their own environments. Thus, the type of environment established by parents and its reward system, the biological predisposition of children, and their own creative activities, lead to preferences for some activities and aversions to others. The result of these lead to interests which are further differentiated by experience. Holland admits that his explanation approximates, to some degree, that advanced by Krumboltz (1984), but is more in keeping with the social behaviorism of Staats (1981). Given Holland's (1985) recognition of the potential explanatory power of either of the aforementioned positions, it is a bit puzzling that he did not try to incorporate more of their ideas about personality development into his theory since he has been criticized for his shortcomings in this area.

Holland's failure to develop his formulations regarding the development of type probably also accounts, to some degree, for his continued inability to explain how to deal with problematic types. To his credit, he has made

progress in this area by (1) developing a set of seven diagnostic categories that are reminiscent in many ways of those posed by Williamson (1939), although he has tied his instruments (SDS & VPI) and constructs (consistency, congruence, differentiation, and identity) to the process and thus embellished earlier formulation; (2) postulated a set of recommendations regarding interventions; and (3) advanced some suggestions for aiding women and minorities and enlarge their range of career choices. Oddly, however, most of Holland's recommendations are aimed at the average person, which presumably means a person with a non-problematic personality.

Is the theory parsimonious?

The presentation of Holland's (1985) theory takes some 40 pages. In this space he defines his terms, sets forth his postulates, and to a certain extent, explains how the constructs and postulates interact. In some instances, succinctness is favored over fullness of explanation. As was noted earlier, the discussion of the relationships among organizational identity, manning, is far from complete. More detailed discussion and illustration of these ideas is badly needed. Also, as was mentioned in the previous sections, some of the postulates in the current theory (e.g., organizational behavior) appear to have been inserted without laying a proper foundation. The result is a theory that has few of the logical building blocks that one expects in a work of this type.

Holland also sacrifices parsimony by deviating from his primary task describing the underlying basis of occupational choice, and to some degree, career development. His theory takes excursions into prediction about friendships, teaching, and therapeutic relationships, social behavior, personal effectiveness, and organizational behavior. To his credit, Holland

is aware of these problems.

Does the theory explain important phenomena?

Holland's theory gets high marks in the area of the importance of phenomena addressed. Originally, his theory primarily addressed the matter of career choice, educational and occupational productivity, and job satisfaction. His newest statement (1985) begins to address the idea of development over the life span. He has also added postulates about friendships, therapeutic and teaching relationships as well as additional formulations about career stability. Unquestionably, these are all important aspects of personal functioning. As noted earlier, these ideas are not well developed and may actually detract from the theory.

Is the theory comprehensive?

A comprehensive theory explains the events in question for all ages, ethnic, and racial groups, as well as for both genders. The theory does not have differential hypotheses postulates for any of these subgroups and presumably, Holland believes that its applicability is not constrained to a single group, and provides a brief review of the literature to support this position. Weinrach (1984) provides a fuller discussion of this issue, including claims by Prediger (1981) that one of the instruments used to measure personality types, The Self Directed Search, is biased against women. However, Weinrach comes to essentially the same conclusion regarding this issue as does Holland: the theory has equal applicability to all groups. If one accepts the supposition of generalizability, the theory of comprehensive.

Does the theory generate empirical inquiry?

Holland (1985) provides the answer to the question. He indicates in the preface to his latest work that the number of research studies reviewed for

his latest statement was four times what it had been for his 1973 statement. No theory has been more heuristic and with the publication of this latest version of the theory and the inclusion of the identity construct, it can only be anticipated that the interest of researchers will increase.

Does the theory aid in the explanation of, prediction of, and eventually control of the phenomena being considered?

The phenomena being considered by Holland are quite diverse, including initial occupational choice, and stability of that choice once made. Holland has also included predictions about a variety of other factors including teaching behavior, organizational functioning, interpersonal relationships, which will not be considered here, although they grow out of essentially the same logic.

To answer the question posed by this criticism, one must consider the critique that has been presented to this point. Constructs that have not been fully defined, logically related, and have failed the criteria of comprehensiveness cannot be explained, predicted, or controlled. The only conclusion that can be reached is that Holland has much work to do. His first job is to layout how traits develop and then to detail how these interact to form the personality. As mentioned, Holland recognizes that Staats' (1975; 1981) work may be useful in this area. There seems to be a natural aversion among all theorists to borrow from other positions, but it is doubtful that Holland will be able to solve this dilemma on his own. However, without the completion of this task, neither the development of normal or abnormal personality can be fully understood. Lack of understanding limits the applicability of Holland's theory in a variety of domains, including using it as a basis for career development program building, and precludes it as a

basis for all but the most elementary career counseling situations.

Along with an understanding of the way personality develops, Holland needs to concern himself with the decision making process. This involves delving deeper into the motivational system of the individual, examining the self directing aspects of the self system, and the language-cognitive as well (Staats, 1975; 1981). Currently, Holland assumes the traditional trait-factor position that given good information, individuals will make good decisions. This is simply not sufficient because the resulting theory fails to capture the dynamic aspects of the career choice making process. Ultimately, decision making must be addressed by looking at the interaction of personality type with the nuances of the complex process. One suspects that a number of new constructs will have to be generated in order to deal with this problem.

At this point in time, Holland appears to be adding postulates based upon random empirical investigations (e.g., identity), rather than proceeding deductively. The result is a growing hodgepodge of postulates and assertions that can, at least to some degree, be traced back to the original formulations that grew out of the hexagon.

Is the theory useful?

Holland points out that one of the strengths of his theory is its utility, particularly in the areas of vocational assessment, environment assessment, and career counseling. While I have some reservations about using Holland's model as the sole basis of career counseling, I would certainly agree that his ideas have great utility in career exploration workshops, creating awareness of self in career among various age groups, and in dealing with some non-problematic career counseling clients. To a very large degree, Holland's position with practitioners is strengthened because it has been the

only "show in town." While Roe (1984), Bordin (1984), Tiedeman (Tiedeman & Miller-Tiedeman (1984), Krumboltz (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1984), and especially Super (1984), have developed ideas that deserve the attention of practitioners, the relative simplicity of Holland's model has been the attractive to many career counselors.

I also have some serious reservations about the use of Holland's model in what is increasingly called life-career counseling and development. There is nothing in the current theory that would be useful to the practitioner to understand the relationship among life roles, a problem that Super (1984) has addressed in a more useful fashion with the presentation of his life-career rainbow.

The Future

When one considers the future of Holland's theory, it is necessary to look at the competing forces. I certainly do not believe that the postulates of any of the current theorists and the materials that they have developed threaten trait-factor's predominance in the theoretical, research, or practical arenas. In one sense, this is a bit sad, since this means that the relative state of theory and practice in career counseling and building career development programs is likely to remain at a fairly low level.

What is heartening is that there are individuals still interested in theory building in this area. Hackett & Betz's (1981) generalization of Bandura's (1977) social learning theory to women is one example, as is Astin's (1984) work. Interestingly, both of these latest statements focus on women, which in part, reflects a deficiency of most current models. Hackett and Betz (1981) have chosen what appears to be the most promising approach to theorizing, that is, generally from one existing theory that is both

relatively well constructed and one that has found some empirical support. One suspects, however, that new and better theories of occupational choice and career development will be rooted in trait-factor theory.

Notes

Note one Personal conversation with E. G. Williamson March 1969.

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R E S U M E
of
STEWART THOMAS COULSON

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PERSONAL: Born- June 10, 1953 Knoxville, Iowa
Height- 5' 9" Weight - 155 pounds
Married 10 years, two children ages 3 and 6

EDUCATION: Russell Community School- Russell, Iowa
Indian Hills Community College- Centerville, Iowa
Northeast Missouri State University-Kirksville, MO

DEGREES: 1971- High School Diploma 1978-B.S.E., Art Ed.
1973- Associate of Arts 1978-M.A. Counseling

CERTIFICATION:

Missouri Art Kindergarten thruogh 12th Grade	1975
Missouri Secondary Counseling and Guidance	1978
Iowa Art First Grade through 12th Grade	1980
Iowa Secondary Counseling and Guidance	1980
National Board for Counselor Certification	1984

UPPER LEVEL COURSES:

Group Procedures	Theories and Techniques
Individual Inventory	Testing and Evaluation
Methods of Research	Principles and Practices
Mental Hygiene	Counseling Experience I
Occupational Information	Counseling Experience II

TEACHING EXPERIENCE:

Guidance Counselor K-12 - Parkersburg, Iowa	1980-1985
Guidance Counselor K-12 - Green City, Missouri	1978-1980
Peer Helping Instructor - Parkersburg, Iowa	1981-1985
Graduate Assistant - Northeast Mo. State University	1978
Practicum - Schuyler R-1 High School, Missouri	1978
Art Teacher - Schuyler R-1 Jr High School, Mo.	1975-1977
Student Teaching - Art K-12 Novinger R-1, Missouri	1975

RELATED EXPERIENCE:

Instructor of Adult Parenting Skills Class, P-Burg	1985
Instructor Meth. Adult Sunday School Class, P-Burg	1985
Chruch Camp Counselor, Indianola, Iowa	1973
Red Cross Swimming Instructor- Missouri & Iowa	1973-1984

ADDITIONAL COUNSELING TRAINING AND/OR EXPERIENCE:

Peer Helping Facilitation
Sexuality Programs for Adolescents
Counseling with Children of Divorce/Separation
Financial Aid for Post-Secondary Education
Substance Abuse
Child Abuse
"I'll Never Smoke" (an American Lung Association project)
Career Education, Including C.I.S.I.
Brief Family Therapy
Special Education, Counseling and Referral
Reality Therapy
Skills for Adolescence program (Quest)
Neuro-Linguistic Programing

ADDITIONAL EDUCATION
RELATED ACTIVITIES:

Quiz Bowl Coach	1984-1985
Jr High School Student Senate Advisor	1981-1983
High School Student Senate Advisor	1981-1985
National Honor Society Advisor	1980-1985
Adult Education Coordinator	1980-1985
Special Activity Bus Driver	1983-1985
Charter Member and President of local Dollars for Scholars Chapter.	1984-1985
Member of Parkersburg Vocal and Instrumental Promoter Organization.	1983-1985
Assist DPI (Dave Wright) and Area VII with Promotion and Establishment of new Peer Helping Programs.	1983-1985

GRANT PROPOSALS
WRITTEN AND FUNDED:

November, 1981, Iowa Crime Commission, for use with Peer Helping program special project. $992.50

October, 1983, Iowa Criminal and Juvenile Justice Planning Agency, for use with Peer Helping [illegible] $1,619.40

July, 1984, Iowa Department of Substance Abuse, for use in developing a community substance abuse information network. $250.00

February, 1985, Iowa Health Department, for use with Peer Helping special projects, organizing a community wellness seminar, and training instructors in the "Skills for Adolescence" curriculum. $1,500.00

INTERESTS AND
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Reaction to

"Status of Trait-Factor Theory"

by Dr. Duane Brown

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April 18, 1986

Introduction

The intention of this paper is to share with its readers some of the reaction of an Iowa high school counselor to Dr. Brown's "Status of Trait-Factor Theory" paper. For that reason I feel you should know that I have practiced my profession in two small high schools over the past eight years. I have found that less than one quarter of my time as a counselor is directly "vocational guidance" oriented.

In studying Dr. Brown's paper, many concepts and questions were being introduced that I had not considered. Many concepts that I thought I was familiar with are being challenged or reconsidered. I find the introduction of these new thoughts, questions, and considerations to be stimulating, although at times very confusing. Being more familiar with Holland's 1973 work than his 1985 revision, Dr. Brown's paper provided me with the impetus for further study and research. Indeed, much of my time spent studying Dr. Brown's thoughts in "The Status of Trait-Factor Theory" was accompanied by professional journals, theory textbooks, and a dictionary in efforts to maintain clarity in what was being proposed or stated.

So, now to the stated purpose of this paper: to share with you some of my reactions. I am organizing my thoughts in three different categories. (1) Basic concept, i.e., what I felt were the main statement points being made in the paper; (2) What was learned and application; (3) My opinions of the thoughts being offered.

Basic Concepts Developed in Dr. Brown's Paper

Theory is practical when it is used as a hypothesis about a domain of events rather than as a testament to the way the world functions.

Holland's new construct of identity is not well integrated into his theoretical statement, particularly as it relates to consistency or differentiation. Though Holland shows optimism about his new construct, identity, its usefulness seems to be unclear. Holland indicates that identity, consistency, and differentation may be considered as estimates of a variety of personality elements individuals may exhibit, but goes on to say identity may be more useful as an indicator of persons with well defined personalities than either differentiation or consistency - a counselor can use all or any of the concepts. If one is potentially better, why not recommend its use.

Some of the postulates in the current theory (e.g. organizational behavior) appear to have been inserted without laying a proper foundation. Holland deviates from his primary task of describing the underlying basis of occupational choice by delving into prediction about friendships, teaching, therapeutic relationships, etc. Though some of these deviations might detract from the theory, Holland (1985) makes notable progress as he begins to address the idea of development over the life span. The theory does not have differential hypothesis postulates for any subgroups (e.g. age, gender, ethnic and racial groups), and presumably Holland believes that its applicability is not constrained to a single group.

Holland has much work to do, first in the area of how traits develop and how these interact to form personality. Lack of understanding limits the applicability of Holland's theory. Holland also needs to be concerned with the decision making process. Holland assumes the traditional trait-factor position that given good information, individuals will make good decisions. This is not sufficient because the resulting theory fails to capture the dynamic aspects of the career choice making process.

Utilization of Holland's theory seems very limited, but due to the relative simplicity of Holland's model, it has been attractive to many career counselors. Other theorists have developed ideas deserving the attention of, and perhaps more usable to, practitioners.

Dr. Brown feels that trait-factor theory will maintain predominance in theoretical, research, and practical arenas. There seems to be a recognition developing of deficiencies of most current models (e.g. focus on women) which will lead to more usable theories of occupational choice and career development.

Following are characteristics of trait-factor theory offered in Dr. Brown's paper:

* Traits are learned and subject to change.
* Traits have validity only in regard to specific situations such as performance of occupational tasks.
* Single traits have a pervasive influence upon the functioning of the individual.
* Traits, particularly those of interest to career counselors, are relatively stable.
* Trait-factor theorists value the quantification of data, both about the individual and the environment.
* Trait factor theorists seek external validation of their constructs (comparing the individual to a reference group).
* Trait factor theory is interactive in nature. Environments influence the personality of the individual in them, and individuals, in attempting to implant their values and fulfill their needs, act on the environment.

* Trait-factor theorists assume that the average or typical individual has the innate ability to make good decisions. Some trait-factor theorists, although realizing that because of limited experience or psychological problems this might not be true, have offered little assistance in overcoming "faulty decision making."

What Was Learned/Application

My knowledge of trait-factor theory was somewhat limited as I began to read Dr. Brown's paper. The paper gave me a small introductory knowledge of the concepts of the theory, more was gained through additional research Most helpful to the educational aspects of the paper's introduction were the characteristics of trait-factor theory. The intermixing of different viewpoints, theory, assumptions, and almost scientific precision tended to give me enough background to continue Dr. Brown's "critique" with some sense of foundation.

By reading this paper I gained a very comprehensive eight step instrument with which to measure the usability or worth of a theory, at least to some extent. The real value of Dr. Brown's paper was in my reeducation toward a new method of looking at a theory and evaluating its usefulness.

Through Dr. Brown's paper, I learned of several gaps in Holland's 1985 theory that I had not considered. Some major weaknesses were:

* Identity, the new construct, is not well integrated into his theory, particularly as it relates to consistency or differentiation.
* Holland, while differentiating in his narrative between organizations and work environments, confuses the two in his postulates about organizational behavior.

* Holland's formulations about the way personality develops is very vague.
* Most of Holland's recommendations are aimed at the average person. (non-problematic personality)
* Many good new ideas are introduced in the theory but not well developed.
* Constructs that have not been fully defined, logically related, and have failed the criteria of comprehensiveness cannot be explained, predicted, or controlled.
* Holland needs to concern himself with the decision making process.

I feel more aware of the considerations that need to be made by a practicing professional in choosing theory to base practice upon and in choosing instruments to measure specific characteristics for vocational choice making. Most of the young people that I work with vocationally have specific and unique problems. I cannot assume that given accurate information they have the skill to make the right choice. They do not have the experience, decision making skills, or clarity of values needed to recognize their own needs as they relate to career choice.

With some of the measuring and evaluating devices given to me with the concepts presented in this paper, I can more fully understand the needs of my clients with the theories of Holland, Super, Roe, Bordin, etc. Therefore, I can more fully appreciate the value of an eclectic approach to theory as a basis for career counseling.

Opinion

There were certain areas in Dr. Brown's paper that I became confused as to the point that he was trying to make. I think a great deal of this came from my inexperience with trait-factor theory, Holland's 1985

revision, and the relatively limited amount of trait-factor theory included in Dr. Brown's paper.

The approach used by Dr. Brown in exploring Holland's theory is clear and concise. With the inclusion of the eight elements of a good theory, Dr. Brown's direction was clear. The points he was making, particularly those regarding weakness of Holland's theory, were approached clearly with the aspect of usability and practicality in mind.

The clear purpose of the critique was to examine Holland's theory for use as a basis for career counseling. For me, this means working with high school students with little or no work experience and usually very little exposure to the world of work.

Dr. Brown indicated some of the stronger elements in Holland's theory. I appreciate the concentration on weak points of the theory. With an understanding of a theory's weakness, a career counselor can work much more effectively with its strengths.

The points Dr. Brown made were well thought out and well presented, usually including a "this is what is needed" statement along with the inadequacies being examined.

These thoughts have made Holland's theory more usable to me by the recognition of its weakness and hypothetical applicabilities. I can strengthen my concepts and ability to help students make better career choices through the use of a combination of theories and further work in the areas of theory weakness (e.g. decision making skills, relationship skills). Dr. Brown's paper lends credibility to these educational concepts of career counseling and the importance of the ability of the counselor to recognize and provide appropriate education to meet the individual needs and problems encountered by students as they work toward eventual success in the world of work.

VITA

Dr. Bernard R. Dansart earned a B.A. degree in natural science at St. Mary's College, Winona, Minnesota and a M. Ed. from the same insitution. During 13 years as a high school biology teacher he taught in St. Louis, Memphis, and four different schools in the Chicago area. In 1961 he was one of 50 teachers nationwide who pilot taught the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study approach to teaching high school biology.

His own career development then led him to gradually prepare himself for a counseling position working with adolescents at a youth center. As program director and group facilitator he worked with approximately 50 different groups of adolescents each year. After working for three years at the youth center he returned to full time studies in counselor education. During this time he also served as instructor at Northern Illinois University where he taught a course in personal development and the family. Upon receiving his doctorate he began teaching at Loras College where he is currently associate professor. His work there has involved doing parenting education workshops, organizing in-service programs for human service professionals, and teaching in the counselor education and teacher education programs. Recently he was a member of the team re-writing the guidance plan for the state of Iowa.

Dr. Dansart has also taken graduate courses at Memphis State University, Loyola University, and St. Louis University and participated in two National Training Laboratory workshops.

His dissertation topic was titled "Development of a Scale to Measure Attitudinal Values as Defined by Viktor Frankl." He has authored the article "Existentialism in the Thought of David Tiedeman" which traces the existential concepts contained in Tiedeman's career development theory.

One of his hobbies is speculating on which career theory his own career development most closely resembles.

The Status of Trait-Factor Theory: Holland's Typology as Cases in Point

A Reaction Paper
to the Presentation of Duane Brown

Bernard R. Dansart
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April 23, 1986

The critique of trait-factor theory (particularly the theory of John Holland) comes through clearly and with emphasis in four areas. The first is when Dr. Brown explicitly states the principles underlying trait-factor theory and brings us up to date regarding some changes from earlier views of the nature of traits. Two newer ideas regarding traits that are presented are: 1) traits are not biologically based and stable throughout life; rather they are learned and therefore subject to change through new learning; 2) traits have validity only in specific situations of a person's life rather than in all settings of a person's life.

The underlying principles/assumptions elaborated for us are the following: 1) traits are assumed to be interactive with each other, 2) quantification of data is primary, 3) external validation of constructs is very important, 4) traits of the person and factors of the environment are mutually interactive, 5) trait-factor theorists assume that the typical individual has the innate ability to make adequate decisions if sufficient data about self and the environment are available.

A second area of emphasis is the point-by-point critique of Holland's theory based on the principles of theory development underlying the scientific method. In this section Brown's reference to the practicality of theory "particularly when it is used as a hypothesis about a domain

of events rather than as a testament to the way the world functions" seems especially a propos to a discussion of career theory. Multiple theories to explain the same phenomenon, in this case career development, reflect the inadequacy of each individual theory to sufficiently explain the available data (Crites, 1982). Because each individual theory is inadequate by itself many theories are necessary to adequately account for all observed phenomena dealing with people of all different groups and all different ages. With career theory admittedly in its infancy, this comment carries even more weight.

A third area of emphasis in Brown's paper is the belief that trait-factor theory is not only currently the most used in practice but that it will continue to be for the foreseeable future.

In the fourth area of emphasis, the point-by-point analysis, Brown gives high marks to Holland's theory for meeting the following criteria of a good theory: 1) it deals with important phenomena, 2) is comprehensive, 3) generates empirical inquiry, and 4) can be used for the practice of counseling. Some of these high marks are qualified, however. Brown gives low marks to Holland's theory on the following criteria: 1) clarity, 2) parsimony, and 3) explanation, prediction and control of phenomena studied. No formal section is devoted to the criterion of accounting for new information. Brown does mention,

however, that Holland's additions to his theory don't appear to follow any logical deductive pattern but new postulates are added "based upon random empirical investigations".

The first specific criterion of theory building applied to Holland's theory is that of clarity. Brown highlights the morass in which one finds oneself when attempting to untangle the relationships among the concepts of consistency, differentiation, and the new (for Holland) concept of identity. It makes me wonder what happened to the concept of vocational maturity mentioned by Holland (1973). Although mentioned only in passing, Holland did suggest that vocational maturity can be measured in terms of consistency, congruence, and differentiation. Vocationally mature persons would have high scores on consistency and differentiation, and to a lesser degree, on congruence. The importance of congruence never did rate very high in terms of its ability to contribute to vocational maturity. Now with consistency being demoted, the only one of the original trio that remains is differentiation. Perhaps the real difficulty is that Holland's theory cannot accommodate the concept of vocational maturity because it does not deal successfully with how types develop. Perhaps only a developmental model can accommodate the concept of maturity.

Holland might well find help in this area by borrowing from the work of Super (developmental tasks), Tiedeman

(inner-directedness and decision-making), and Knefelcamp and Slepitza (cognitive development) and other career theorists (Herr & Cramer, 1984). Whitely (1978) suggests the use of research designs calculated to demonstrate a causal link between how people see themselves and job choices rather than rely solely on correlational studies. Single case studies are mentioned specifically as being potentially helpful. Other research designs containing control and comparison groups that would have predictive validity would be very difficult to carry out but might lead to some very valuable insights.

Osipow (1983) cites several interesting research studies of Super designed to test the validity of the concept of career maturity. One conclusion from these studies is that vocational preferences fail to show much consistency between field and level during ninth grade and may only begin to show up later in one's life. Just as we have much to learn about maturity in the personal/social area we appear to have much to learn about the development of careers, a topic about which Holland has little to say. A second conclusion generated from the research of Super is the importance of planfulness in career development, an idea which contains in it the seeds of the career education movement. Holland would applaud this movement particularly as it applies to gathering information about self and occupations through a variety of experiences.

The most interesting aspect to this audience is probably the usefulness of Holland's theory. Trait-factor theory in general and Holland's theory in particular are geared to those who can function effectively in vocational decision making without the aid of a counselor. Holland makes this point in responding to an article by Stephen J. Brown in which he is critical of the Self Directed Search.

Brown (1975) spoke from the perspective of operating as a counselor in a large city community college. He cited several deficiencies of the Self Directed Search, or perhaps deficiencies of the students in his school, that made the self-directed aspect of the SDS highly problematic. He cited inadequate reading skills, inability to follow the scoring directions without making mistakes, lack of enough occupational experiences to avoid deep frustration over checking too many "no's", high aspirations coupled with low level skills and too few occupations listed in the Occupations Finder.

In his reply, Holland (1975) lists several available remedies such as Form E to solve the reading problem and revised forms of the SDS to make the computations easier to perform. He goes on to say that the SDS is "not a test but a simulation of the vocational counseling experience"(p. 518). He chides Brown for wanting counselors to do too much one-to-one counseling and challenges counselors to become "managers, evaluators and developers of experiences

instead". He seems to be saying that most persons don't need individual help of counselors and counselors can more efficiently use their time and energy developing more self-directed experiences. Holland's most recent (1985) edition of the SDS contains improvements such as an expanded list of occupations (now over 1100) in the Occupations Finder, rewriting directions, including an improved list of resource materials, and redesigning the booklet to make it more attractive that indicate he is continuing to devote his energies to making direct counselor intervention unnecessary. How helpful these changes are remains to be seen but it seems unlikely that even Holland would claim that these improvements have eliminated the need for individual career counseling in some cases.

Oetting and Miller (1977), for example, pointed out the extreme difficulty of helping the disadvantaged gain and maintain employment. Their needs are so fundamental that even clients individually coached by paraprofessionals did no better than randomly assigned controls. Many problems such as changing from a street life style and ethnic differences are not amenable to solution except by the most extraordinary means. A new work adjustment hierarchy consisting of 11 steps and beginning with motivation to seek work was designed. Only when these steps were implemented religiously were their efforts rewarded with job seeking, obtaining, maintaining, and satisfaction.

Warnath (1975) offers a more serious and broad challenge to the usefulness of all career development theories charging that career counselors are trying to deliver on a promise that conditions of the modern workplace make it impossible to fulfill. Vocational theories of every kind, he said, are based on the assumption of fitting persons into satisfying jobs that enable a person to fulfill self. A prior assumption underlying vocational theories is that every job is capable of calling into use enough of the person's human qualities to make the job meaningful. Warnath argued that the workplace is simply not organized in this way. The workplace,he said, operates on the principle of achieving the most efficient production of goods. This principle is antithetical to the belief that persons can be matched into satisfying jobs or can find self expression in them. He suggests the career counselor do some soul-searching about whether s/he is involved in an amoral venture, namely, promoting to the unsuspecting client the spurious notion that there is a meaningful job waiting out there.

Although it is difficult to accept fully Warnath's thesis that society makes finding a meaningful job impossible it is a bit unsettling to think that there may be some substantial truth to it. Does implementation of career theory require some attempt either to change society or to provide our clients with some "caveat" about the way the

work world is structured. Is the work world of the information age we live in more congenial in allowing the average person to find meaningful work than the society Warnath was talking about?

The emphasis in trait-factor theory on logical thinking raises another issue of usefulness. In a review of trait-factor theory, Crites (1978) recalls the four categories of problematic decision making: 1) no choice, 2) uncertain choice, 3) unwise choice, and 4) discrepancy between interests and aptitudes. Diagnosing which of these besets the client must then be followed by "true reasoning", a key concept of trait-factor theory, to deliver the client from this dilemma. This suggests that trait-factor counseling involves a very logical process. Is the typical person sufficiently skilled in the decision making process to follow this true reasoning without the assistance of a counselor? Is the typical person sufficiently free of emotional problems to follow this process without individual help from a counselor?

Baumgardner (1977) argues that the degree to which decision making is a rational process is questionable. He views decision making as existing on a continuum from impulsive deciding to rational deciding with actual decisions taking place somewhere in between these two extremes. The psychologist, Alan Watts, (1957) compares decision making, somewhat facetiously I believe, to the

practice of reading tea leaves. Nonetheless, teaching decision making as a part of career education is obviously well established. Several questions about decision making arise. How much of our decision making is the result of logical thinking and how much is the result of intuition. Can the use of intuition be taught as part of the career decision making process? How much information is enough? How much information is too much? Are there logical guidelines for deciding that now is the time to cease gathering information and comparing alternatives and make a decision? If we are able to formulate logical guidelines for the use of intuition does intuition then become a superfluous human faculty?

Brown concludes his critique of Holland's theory with a look to the future and a comment about promising new theories related specifically to the career development of women. Boyce (1985) describes the formulation of a model of the psychosocial development of women that may have some implications for career theory and career education. Her model differs sharply from the lifespan developmental model outlined by Erik Erikson and the adult years model of Levinson and Vaillant. She regards these as models of male development rather than human (male and female) development. These models call for successive and successful passage through stages in a linear fashion. Erikson specifically identifies passage through stages from trust to integrity.

Boyce's model also begins with trust and ends with integrity. However the developmental crises overlap considerably in the sense that women must deal in a substantial way with more than one at a time. In addition generativity, represented by nurturing and caring, is a lifelong issue for women.

What does this developmental model suggest for the future of career theory? What career patterns different from existing ones might be "acceptable" and even desirable for women? What career education interventions for girls and women might be different? What kind of knowledge and experiences might be more appropriate? More attractive to them? At what times of their lives? Given the current societal emphasis on equality of the sexes would it be regarded as chauvinistic to regard women's development as significantly different than that of men? Since they compose such a large segment of the population giving serious consideration to the developmental pattern of women could signal very significant changes in the future for career theory.

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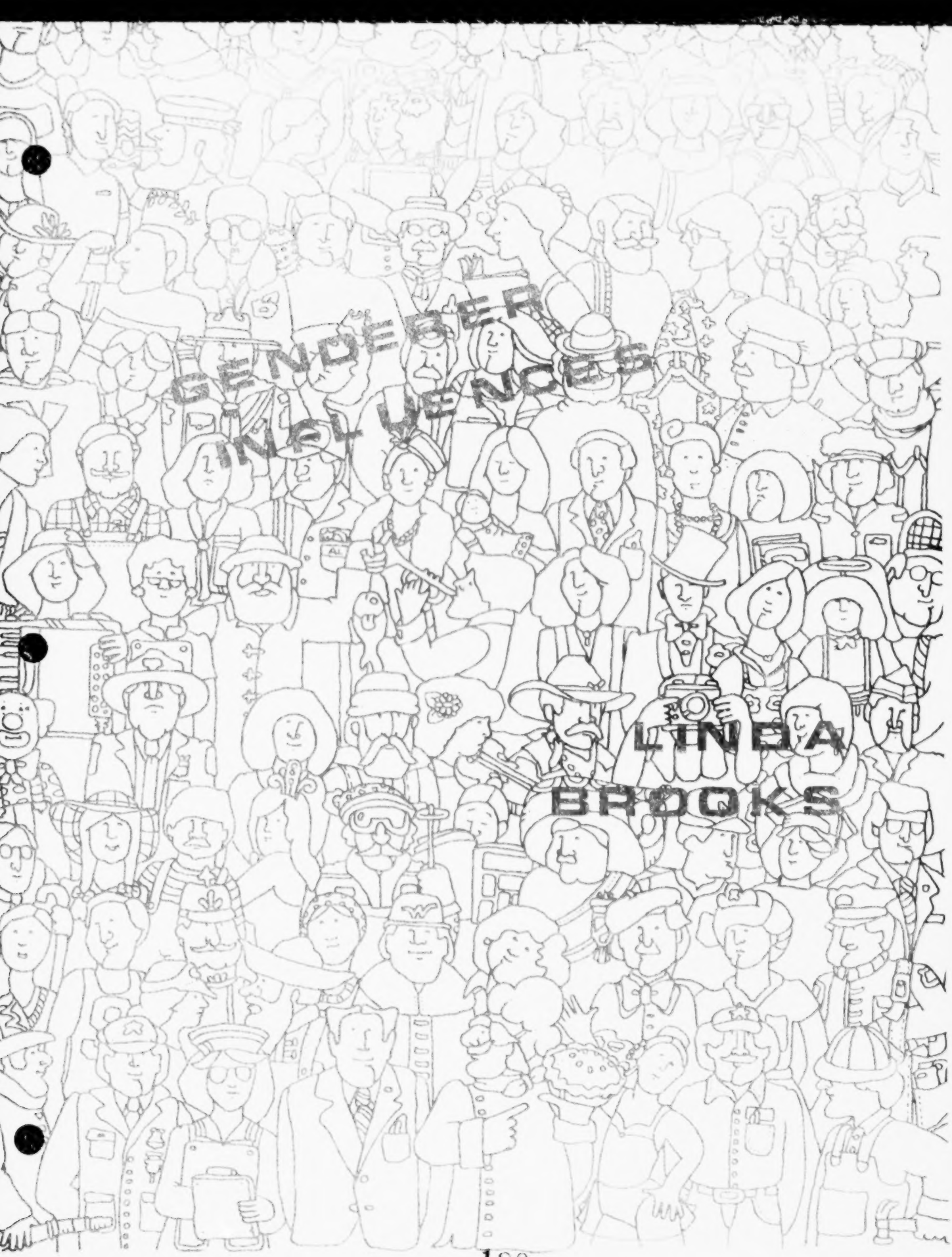
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EDUCATION

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1958-62	Southern Illinois Univ.	Journalism	B.S.
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PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

1980-Present	Assistant Professor, Counseling Psychology, School of Education, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill
1979-80	Visiting Assistant Professor, Counselor Education, College of Education, University of South Carolina, Columbia
1975-78	Director, Women's Center, Converse College, Spartanburg, SC
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1973-75	Counseling Psychologist, Counseling Center, University of South Carolina, Columbia
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1970-71	Counselor, Counseling Center, University of Colorado, Denver
1967-68	Director of Residence Hall Area, State University of New York, Binghamton
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1964-65	Coordinator, Student Activities, Carthage College, Kenosha, WI

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American Psychological Association (APA)
    Division 17, Counseling Psychology
    Division 35, Psychology of Women

American Association for Counseling and Development (AACD)
American College Personnel Association (ACPA)
National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA)
North Carolina Psychological Association (NCPA)

Committees

1973-74	APA Task Force on Issues on Sexual Bias in Graduate Education
1977-78	South Carolina Coordinator for National Vocational Guidance Association Week
1980	APA, Division 35, Convention Program Reviewer
1981-84	APA, Division 17, Committee on Women Member, Task Force-Project on Career Development of Women Member, Task Force-Research on Mentoring
1982-83	APA, Division 35, Convention Program Review Committee NCPA, Member, Membership Committee
1983-84	APA, Division 17 Coordinator, Hospitality Suite Program for 1984 APA Convention Member, Membership Committee
1983-85	NCPA Chair, Membership Committee Member, Board of Directors Member, Scientific Affairs Committee
1984-86	NVGA, Career Information Review Service Committee
1984-87	APA, Division 17 Member, Program Committee
1985-86	NCPA Chair, Scientific Affairs Committee
1986-87	APA, Division 17 Chairperson, Program Committee

Publications

Galassi, J.P., Brooks, L., Stoltz, R.F., & Trexler, K.A. (in press). Research training environments and student productivity: An exploratory study. The Counseling Psychologist. (refereed)

Brown, D., & Brooks L.B. (in press). Career counseling as a mental health intervention. Professional Psychology: Research and Practice. (refereed)

Brooks, L., Holahan, W., & Galligan, M. (1985). The effects of a non-traditional role-modeling intervention on sex typing of occupational preferences and career salience in adolescent females. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 26, 264-276. (refereed)

Brooks, L. & Brown D. (in press). Career counseling with adults. In A.J. Palmo, W. J. Weikel, & D.K. Brooks, Jr., (Eds.), Foundations of mental health. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas. (nonrefereed)

Brooks, L. & Haigler, J. (1984). Contract career counseling: An option for some help-seekers. Vocational Guidance Journal, 33, 178-182. (refereed)

Brown, D. & Brooks, L. (Eds.) (1984). Career choice and development: Applying contemporary theories to practice. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (nonrefereed)

Brown, D. & Brooks, L. (1984). Introduction to career development: Origins, evolution, and current approaches. In D. Brown & L. Brooks (Eds.), Career choice and development: Applying contemporary theories to practice. (pp. 1-7). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (nonrefereed)

Brooks, L. (1984). Career counseling methods and materials. In D. Brown & L. Brooks (Eds.), Career choice and development: Applying contemporary theories to practice. (pp. 337-354). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (nonrefereed)

Brooks, L. (1984). Women and ethnic minorities. In D. Brown & L. Brooks (Eds.), Career choice and development: Applying contemporary theories to practice. (pp. 355-368). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (nonrefereed)

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Christensen, K.C., Birk, J.M., Brooks, L. & Sedlacek, W.E. (1976). Where clients go before contacting the university counseling center. Journal of College Student Personnel, 17, 296-399. (refereed)

Publications (cont.)

Gelso, C.J., Brooks, L. & Karl, N.J. (1975). Perceptions of "counselors" and other helpers: A consumer analysis. Journal of College Student Personnel, 16, 287-292. (refereed)

Birk, J.M., Barbanel, L., Brooks, L., Herman, M.H., Johasz, J.B., Seltzer, R.R. & Tangri, S.C. (1975). Guidelines for nonsexist use of language. American Psychologist, 30, 682-684. (refereed)

Brooks, L. (1974). Interactive effects of sex and status on self-disclosure. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 21, 469-474. (refereed)

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Research in Progress

Galassi, J.P., Stoltz, R.F., Brooks, L. & Trexler, K. Research training in counseling psychology and counselor education programs. (Submitted for publication)

Birk, J.M. & Brooks, L. National survey of training needs for counseling psychologists. (Submitted for publication)

Brooks, L. & Haring-Hidore, M. Problems in mentoring relationships as perceived by proteges. (Submitted for publication)

Haring-Hidore, M. & Brooks, L. Problems in mentoring relations as perceived by mentors. (In data collection stage)

Brooks, L. & Haring-Hidore, M. On defining "mentor." (In design phase)

Dissertations Directed

Oakley, S.J. (1985). A short-term cognitive-behavioral approach to the treatment of bulimia.

Vedder, M.J. (1985). Sound body, sound mind: The influence of fitness training on self-esteem, perceived fitness, and favorable/unfavorable cognitions.

Grants and Honors

1982-83	Spencer Foundation. Research Grants in Education for Young Scholars in the Behavioral Sciences. $7,919.
1984-86	University Faculty Research Grant. $750.
1984	Peabody Award for Excellence in Advising, presented by Graduate Student Association of the School of Education, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

Gender Influences in Career Development: Motivation for Nontraditional Career and Lifestyle Options

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It is quite clear that gender is a salient factor in career choice and development. This fact is one that ordinary American citizens cannot escape as they go about their daily routines. When they stop at the service station on their way to work, they see that the attendants are mostly men. When they enter their offices, they find that the secretaries are primarily women. When they cash their paychecks on their way home, most of the tellers are women. When they watch the evening news on either of the three major television networks, the anchor is a man.

These daily observations demonstrate that both men and women occupy a restricted range of occupations. By far the greatest amount of concern about this situation, however, has been directed to women, undoubtedly because "women's jobs" in contrast to "men's jobs" are low in status and low in pay. As a result of this state of affairs, counselors have been urged to use strategies that will encourage women to explore a wider variety of career options.

This pressure on counselors to urge women to explore more widely has created at least two dilemmas for counselors. The first dilemma is an ethical one; that is, to what extent is it legitimate for counselors "to reshape youngster's aspirations and views of themselves?" (Goddfredson, 1981, p. 577). This issue will be discussed later.

The second dilemma is the identification of strategies that will be effective in stimulating women to explore more broadly. Thus far, the career choice literature has provided counselors with little or no definitive direction. Certainly classic career development theory provides little guidance. These theories have been severely criticized by many as inadequate

in regard to women (e.g., Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980; Hansen, 1977; Harmon, 1978). Neither can effective strategies be derived from the research on interventions designed to stimulate women to consider nontraditional career options. Various approaches have been tried, including exposing women to nontraditional models (Brooks, Holahan, & Galligan, 1985; kennedy-Swergel, 1981; Little & Roach, 1974; Weeks & Porter, 1983; Weeks, Thornburg, & Little, 1977; Wilson, 1981), supplementing interest inventories with information on working women (Cooper, 1976), and offering group treatments that focuse on women's special issues (Blimline, 1976). Results show minimal effects at best, and more often no effects at all.

Clearly, a variety of methodological and design flaws could account for the nonsignificant results. These issues have been thoroughly reviewed by others (Fretz, 1981; Holland, Magoon, & Spokane, 1981; Osipow, 1982; Spokane & Oliver, 1983) and future research on career interventions could certainly be improved if the suggestions of these authors were heeded. Rather than focus on methodological and design problems, however, this paper proposes that research on interventions is flawed on conceptual grounds. In short, the approaches have not been based on a theoretical framework. Instead, the interventions appear to have been stimulated by what someone thought was a "good idea" that turned out to be not such a good idea after all. Less I be accused of a pot calling the kettle black, I include in this category a study of my own (Brooks, Holahan, & Galligan, 1985). Our good idea was that young women might express more interest in nontraditional options if they were exposed to nontraditional models who would describe their choices and lifestyles in positive terms. We thought we had made several methodological

improvements but still we found no significant effects.

Rather than continuing to rely on a good idea of dubious value, I propose instead that our interventions with women need to be guided by theory. Since the issue at hand is how to stimulate or motivate women to consider a wider variety of options, I propose that interventions need to be based on a motivational model. Greenfield, Greiner, and Wood (1980) similarly urged more motivational research, suggesting in particular that we need to address the question "What factors give some women a certain amount of drive and determination to attain and desire 'economic' success while other women have little or none?" (p. 308). This paper proposes that the Expectancy-Value model of motivation provides a promising framework. This proposition is based on the seemingly simple but apparently overlooked idea that women will not explore a wider variety of career and lifestyle options unless they are motivated to do so.

The next section of this paper provides a brief explanation of expectancy theory, followed by an explanation of how the model can be used to understand women's inclinations toward or away from non-traditional options. Finally, the implications of the model for research, for counseling, for ethics and free choice, and for boys and men will be addressed.

Expectancy Model of Motivation

Many career counselors and researchers will find expectancy theory familiar since it is central to some models of career decision-making (e.g., Katz, 1966). Less well known perhaps, is that industrial/organizational psychologists have found it predicts occupational preference and job choice reasonably well (see reviews by Mitchell & Beach, 1976; Wanous, Keon, &

Latack, 1983).

As formulated by Vroom (1964), expectancy theory states that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way is the result of the product of expectations and values. Put another way, "motivation . . . is a function of both the desire for a goal (its incentive value) and the subjective probability of attaining it" (Laws, 1978, p. 291).

Expectancy theory can be represented algebraically as:

$$Fi = E_{ij} \times V_j$$

where Fi = the force on the individual to perform act i, E = the subjective probability or expectancy that behavior i will lead to outcome j and V = the valence or attractiveness of outcome j. An additional equation is needed to specify the components of valence, or the attractiveness term. As stated by Wanous, et al. (1983), attractiveness is determined by the product of the beliefs about the outcomes associated with an option and the desirability of each outcome to the individual. This can be represented as

V_j = Belief about each outcome associated with the option X Desirability of each outcome to the individual

The full model then becomes:

Fi = E_{ij} X Belief about outcomes X Desirability of outcomes

According to the model, then, there are two components to motivation: an expectancy dimension and a value or attractiveness dimension. Because these two dimensions vary independently, both must be present in high degrees for behavior to occur. For example, suppose an option (j) is to enter the field of engineering. If a woman's expectancy for attainment is high (e.g., she

believes that she has the ability to complete training and perform satisfactorily as an engineer), but she views the outcomes associated with engineering work as undesirable or unattractive (e.g., co-workers will be mostly men who are sexist, males will view her as an undesirable mate), then it is unlikely that she will choose engineering as an option. Conversely, if the anticipated outcomes of choosing engineering are highly valued (such as high income and high status), but the expectancy for attainment is low (she doubts her ability to perform the job, does not believe these jobs are readily available to women), it is also unlikely that engineering will be chosen.

This example leads to the following proposition: Women will be motivated to explore a wider variety of occupational options to the extent that they (a) believe the options are attainable, and (b) view the options as attractive. Thus, if we want to stimulate women to broaden their horizons, we need to focus on either their expectations for attainment or their anticipated gratifications regarding the possible options, or both. Unfortunately, past research on career interventions with women has not distinguished between these two components of motivation. For example, one frequently used intervention is exposing women to nontraditional role models. A common dependent measure is a rating of interest in nontraditional careers. Which dimension of the motivation model does this intervention address -- expectations or values? Perhaps it is the expectancy dimension. If I observe that a person (model) similar to me can perform a certain role or behavior, then perhaps that will affect my estimates of success for myself. On the other hand, maybe observing a role model will influence my perceptions of the attractiveness of her life style or chosen occupation. Either possibility

seems reasonable, but in the absence of outcome measures that assess each dimension separately, we cannot be sure whether the intervention affects one or the other or both. Instead, the usual dependent variable -- listings or rating of interest in nontraditional occupations -- is ambiguous and measures neither the Expectancy nor the Valence dimension in a clear way.

With this general model in mind, the components of the expectancy and value dimensions as they particularly relate to women and nontraditional options can be specified. Table 1 presents the model. As will be seen, the model recognizes that for most women, the perceived attractiveness and attainability of nontraditional career options are not viewed separately from the attractiveness and attainability of lifestyle options. That is, career decision-making is intimately connected with marriage and family issues (Tittle, 1981; Voydanoff, 1984).

Expectancy Model as Applied to Women and Nontraditional Options

Subjective Probability of Attainment

As can be seen in Table 1, I propose that the expectancy term, or subjective probability of attainment, contains three components. The first is self-efficacy, or the expectation or belief of the individual that she can perform a given behavior (Hackett & Betz, 1981), or more broadly, "Perceived self-efficacy is concerned with judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). This category includes both career and lifestyle self-efficacy expectations.

The second is the perceived structure of opportunity. One could argue that the perceived structure of opportunities contributes to or detracts from

one's self-efficacy expectations and thus, should not be a separate category. I prefer to keep it separate because, like Gottfredson and Becker (1981), I believe that vocational psychologists and career counselors have minimized the importance of this variable. Further, although Gottfredson (1981) believes it affects actual job choice, I think it also affects people's visions of what they might attain. The third variable is concerned with the person's view of the degree to which her immediate environment or situation supports or puts constraints on attainment. A closer look at each of these areas will reveal why women's estimates of attainment for nontraditional options may be quite low.

Self-efficacy. In regard to career self-efficacy expectations and nontraditional career options, Hackett and Betz (1981) have argued that the literature supports the view that women are more likely as a group to have low and weak career self-efficacy expectations, especially in regard to nontraditional occupations. It is important to note that, according to the theory (Bandura, 1977), there are four sources of information that affect self-efficacy expectations: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience (e.g., observing others), verbal persuasion or encouragement from others, and emotional arousal (i.e., anxieties). In the area of performance appraisal, the research indicates that girls are less likely to have the experiences that will help them develop abilities related to non-traditional career areas (e.g., experiences related to spatial abilities), and that women compared to men undervalue their achievements and more often attribute their success to external rather than internal causes (Hackett & Betz, 1981).

In regard to vicarious learning, Hackett and Betz (1981) like many

others, note that there are still too few models of women engaging in nontraditional pursuits. In regard to emotional arousal, Hackett and Betz (1981) point to findings showing that women compared to men and feminine sex-typed compared to masculine sex-typed persons show higher levels of anxiety.

In the area of verbal persuasion or support from others, Hackett and Betz make the general observation that men receive more encouragement for career pursuits than women. Further, women perceive both a lack of encouragement and overt discouragement. Fitzgerald and Betz (1983) cite studies showing the relationship of encouragement of family, peers, and teachers to non-traditional occupational preferences and career commitment. A recent study provides further support for the importance of support from others.

> "The data revealed that the one dimension that most significantly differentiated Nontraditionals from both the Traditionals and the Considered was the amount of support and encouragement they received from the important others in their lives.... In fact, the one variable indicating the amount of encouragement the respondents received from female friends and family members alone account for 18% of the variance between the Traditional and Non-traditional subgroups" (Houser & Garver, 1985, p. 115).

One source of encouragement that may be particularly important to some women, both young and old, is men. Laws (1978) stresses that young women's concern about marriageability makes them especially sensitive to real or imagined disapproval from men in their lives. Certainly women in my generation can recall frequent times when they either minimized their accomplishments, lied

about them, or if the consequences were not too great, purposely flubbed their performance in the name of protecting the male ego. I submit that these kinds of behaviors consistently engaged in over time reduce women's self-efficacy expectations.

Research on the relationship of self-efficacy expectations and nontraditional career options is in the beginning stages but generally supports the theory. Four studies, for example, show the predicted relationships between gender, career self-efficacy expectations and traditionality of perceived career options (Betz & Hackett, 1981; 1983; Hackett, 1985; Rotberg, 1985).

Thus far, the research on women and career self-efficacy has focused on expectations for performing the duties involved in nontraditional jobs and for completing the educational requirements. Unexplored as yet are two additional areas where career self-efficacy expectations may play a part. The first has to do with the job situations faced by women in nontraditional careers. Many women are aware that some nontraditional jobs may require the ability to cope with several difficult situations, such as isolation and lack of support in a primarily male environment, sexual harassment, discrimination, and sexism. Thus, self-efficacy expectations may be low and weak in regard to coping with the job environment.

Second, one's beliefs about women's capabilities in general may affect one's own self-efficacy expectations. For example, Stake (1976) found that women set higher goals for themselves when they were told that women performed better than men.

In regard to lifestyle self-efficacy expectations, the literature on

women in dual-career marriages has documented the need for a variety of skills in such areas as conflict, time management, negotiation, etc. (e.g., Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976). Thus, as Bandura (1982) has observed, women need a "robust sense of self-efficacy not only to enter careers dominated by men, but to fulfill the heavy demands arising from dual work loads of career and household" (p. 136).

Perceived opportunity structure. The second factor that affects one's subjective probability of attainment is the perceived opportunity structure. In other words, one's judgments about the accessibility of options for oneself as well as for women in general affects one's expectations for attainment. Gottfredson (1981) made a similar proposal: "Perceptions of opportunities and barriers to jobs and training...would be expected to influence vocational aspirations through their impact on one's expectations for obtaining these jobs" (P. 570). Judgments about accessibility are concerned with perceptions about the opportunities or barriers to obtaining the necessary training as well as entering the occupation. Clearly, these perceptions are based in part on individual reality factors. For example, access to training and education is dependent in part on the financial resources available to the person. Judgments about accessibility may also be influenced, however, by the perceived opportunity structure for women in general. A similar argument has been made for Black Americans. The idea is that when Blacks look out on America and see where Blacks work and do not work, Black youth become defeated before they start (Hauser, 1971). Similarly, when women look around, they see that women are concentrated in a rather narrow range of occupations. Surely it is no accident that people's perceptions of the gender of occupations

parallels the actual distribution of males and females in the labor force (Krefting, Berger, & Wallace, 1978), i.e., sex-typing of occupations is based not only on stereotypes of sex-appropriate occupations but also on the reality of the labor market. Thus, it seems reasonable to propose that an individual's cognitive map of the gender of occupations represents, in part, her perception of the opportunity structure. This perception may vary from "this occupation is not at all available to women" to "this occupation is available but not very accessible" (e.g., employers prefer to hire men for these positions). Thus, if few women occupy a particular job, one might perceive that attainment is possible but perhaps there are unpleasant roadblocks -- ones that require high levels of self-efficacy expectations. In the face of perceived barriers posed by the opportunity structure, an individual's subjective probability of attainment will be low.

No research could be found that directly tests the relationship between the perceived opportunity structure and expectations for attainment. Two studies, however, provide some support for the proposition that the gender composition of a field affects one's expectations for success. Heilman (1979) found that women's rated interest in and estimates of success in male-dominated occupations were higher when they were told that the sexual composition of the occupation would be more gender-balanced in the future. Bridges and Bower (1985) found that the women in their sample indicated they were more likely to pursue jobs described as providing good opportunities for women versus poor opportunities.

Perceptions of environmental/situational supports or constraints. Briefly, what I have in mind here are such factors as the degree to which

significant others will be cooperative and supportive. For example, I would suggest that the expectations of attainment for the woman whose husband ripped up her college textbooks and took her car keys might be rather low even if her academic self-efficacy was rather high.

Attractiveness of Options

As can be seen in Table 1, the value dimension of the motivation equation includes those components included in the equation presented earlier. According to the model, to determine the attractiveness of any given alternative we would need to answer two questions: (a) What outcomes does the person believe the alternative will provide, and (b) How desirable or important are these outcomes for the individual.

Although perceived outcomes and their desirability have not been assessed directly in research, it seems reasonable to propose a few possibilities. For example, at least one or more of the following might be perceived as an outcome accompanying a nontraditional career choice: (a) Being unmarried, (b) being childless, (c) being divorced, (d) receiving disapproval from men. For example, the so-called "fear of success" literature (Horner, 1972) suggests that one possible perceived outcome in male-oriented achievement situations is that successful women will be negatively evaluated by others, especially men. There are many other possible outcomes, of course, but this list purposely focuses on those concerned with marriage and family because, as noted earlier, these issues are extremely salient for women. As Tittle (1981) observed, "career decisions made by women take into account their expectations for marriage and children" (p. 72). The point is that if we are to understand fully the attractiveness or unattractiveness of specific career options for

women, we must recognize that attractiveness is not determined solely by the characteristics of the option per se but also by the desirability of the various family patterns that are perceived to accompany them. Having said that, I want to turn to some general comments about the possible attractiveness of some anticipated outcomes.

Considerable research has been conducted on the issue of the home-career conflict in women. Thus, values associated with the "home" may act as a disincentive for some women. Put another way, to the degree that nontraditional options are perceived as disallowing desired rewards anticipated from family and marriage, they may be perceived as undesirable.

Laws (1978) has asserted that for young women a salient issue is marriageability. As she states it, "In general, young women avoid options that bear the negative incentive of real or imagined disapproval of males who are possible partners" (p. 296), which of course is associated with the belief that men disapprove of women using their intelligence. Thus, young women may believe that they must be acceptable to all males and that men disapprove of intelligent, achieving women. A study by Feather and Simon (1975) supports the idea that successful females are more likely to be viewed as a failure and to be liked less. Other research additionally supports the idea that competent women are viewed negatively by men (Hagen & Kahn, 1975).

The need to compete with men may be another undesirable outcome associated with some options. Laws (1978) believes, based on her review of the literature, that women resolve competition with men via one of three routes: (a) they abandon competing, (b) they lower their aspirations, or (c) they deny responsibility for success. These behaviors certainly suggest that

anticipated competition with men may be a negative incentive.

Another set of unattractive outcomes may be associated with dual-career marriages. For example, professional women have higher divorce rates (Gray, 1980). Further, as recent research has shown (e.g., Weingarten, 1978), women continue to handle the bulk of the responsibilities at home. Or as Laws (1978) puts it, disincentives for working married women with children are loss of sleep and leisure. These outcomes are not very attractive. The research by Baruch and Barnett (1980) that suggests that the well being of women involved in multiple roles, including work outside the home, may be higher than that of nonemployed women may not be well known, let alone believed.

Finally, some options are unattractive because they are perceived as incongruent with one's self-schemata. For example, Laws (1978) has hypothesized that women choose options that are congruent with their range of femininity. "Behavior that can be interpreted as disconfirming the sense of adequate femininity will be avoided... Judging by their expressed intentions, young women extend their competence as far as prevailing definitions of femininity permit and no further" (Laws, 1978, p. 303). Gottfredson (1981) similarly proposed that they will not consider options that go beyond their tolerable sex-type boundary except under unusual circumstances. Neither, she added, will they prefer occupations that are too high or too low in prestige for their social class or reference group.

In summary, in order for nontraditional careers to be viewed as attractive, (a) both the outcomes associated with the occupation and the lifestyle must be perceived as desirable, and (b) these outcomes will be desirable to the extent they are perceived as congruent with the person's

self-schemata, goals, and needs and the consequences of success are viewed as more positive than negative.

Implications of the Model

For Research

As noted earlier, research testing hypotheses about occupational preferences as derived from Expectancy theory has been generally supportive. While some research using a variation of this model has been conducted on gender differences in elementary student's preferences for sex-typed school subjects (Stein, 1971) and selection of "boys" and "girls" tasks (Stein, Pohly, & Mueller, 1971), only one study could be located that addressed the issue of motivation toward gender-atypical occupational preferences (Garland & Smith, 1981). Because this study was based on a slightly different model, operationalized some variables in some questionable ways, and focused primarily on between gender differences rather than within gender differences, this study will not be reviewed here.

Clearly, testing the full E x V model in regard to women and nontraditional careers would require some work on instrumentation. In regard to Subjective probability of attainment, some work has already been completed on self-efficacy measures in regard to nontraditional careers (Betz & Hackett, 1981; Rotberg, 1985). A possible measure of perceived opportunity structure is that developed by Howell, et al. (1984), although it would need some modification for this purpose. One or more of the many available social support measures could easily be adapted to measure perceived support from others. A satisfactory measure of self-efficacy for lifestyle options, however, is a bit more problematic.

In regard to operationalizing the valence or attractiveness dimension, work needs to be completed on generating a list of perceived outcomes, which can be expected to vary by age and life situation. Wheeler and Mahoney (1981) provide a promising method for identifying this list in regard to occupations per se. A similar process could be used to identify lifestyle outcomes. Simple Likert rating scales could be used to assess desirability of the outcomes.

In addition to the obvious research questions that need to be addressed to test out the model per se, changes in measures used to assess the effects of interventions are suggested by this model. To return to the example of interventions which expose subjects to nontraditional role models, a frequently used dependent measure is a rating of interest in specific occupations, usually classified as non-traditional, traditional, and neutral. Self-efficacy theory (Banduray, 1982), suggests, however, that models would affect efficacy expectations rather than occupational preferences. Expectancy theory suggests, in addition, that models might also affect the perceived accessibility of the careers in question (i.e., structure of opportunity), perceived outcomes of choosing and entering the career, and desirability of the outcomes. Thus, perhaps modeling interventions do have significant effects, but they influence expectancy and attractiveness dimensions, rather than career preferences.

For Counseling

The Expectancy model points to some rather obvious interventions that might be used to encourage clients to explore a wider range of options. In general, the interventions would focus on increasing the client's expectancy

or changing her beliefs about the outcomes and/or their desirability. Before determining strategies, however, the counselor must first complete an assessment of the client's expectations and values. Clearly, a very elaborate assessment system could be devised to measure each component of the model. Such a comprehensive assessment is impractical for many situations, given both the amount of time clients are willing to devote to the process and the demands of counselor time, especially those working in schools.

Thus, I suggest the following:

1. Give the client a vocational card sort that includes both gender typical, gender atypical, and gender neutral occupations that vary in prestige and educational level. Although a card sort could be made by the counselor, there are several available on the market. Follow the usual directions for these card sorts (Holland, et al. 1980).

2. Once you see the general pattern of interests, separate the cards into two groups: gender typical and gender atypical, and ask the client to discuss desirable and undesirable features of both types. This procedure will help you determine the range and flexibility of their sex-type (Gottfredson, 1981).

3. As the client discusses the desirable/undesirable features, listen for comments that pertain to her subjective probability of success -- self-efficacy expectations in regard to career and lifestyle, perceived opportunity structure, perceived support of others. Listen also for dimensions relevant to attractiveness -- her belief about outcomes and desirability of outcomes. Pay close attention to the accuracy of her information in regard to outcomes. If all of these topics do not arise

naturally, ask the client specific questions. How would your family and friends feel if you pursued this occupation? Would they encourage/discourage you? How difficult/easy do you think it might be for you to enter and succeed in this occupation? What would help or hinder? How would this occupation impact on other life roles you expect for yourself?

This procedure should help you identify perceived opportunities and constraints and decide what strategies to use in helping to maximize resources and minimize barriers. For example, if career self-efficacy appears to be low, the counselor might focus on helping the client change her attributions, or on arranging some volunteer or work experiences that would allow successful performance. Teaching communication and negotiation skills may be necessary for a client facing non-cooperative family situations. Cognitive restructuring of options as appropriately feminine may help increase the congruence between feminine identity and occupational choice. Laws (1978) reports a study, for example, showing that women pre-med school students characterized the medical profession in culturally feminine terms. Finally, perceived outcomes may be based on incorrect or limited information. Yanico and Milbauer (1983), for example, found that women (and men) are quite limited in their information about nontraditional careers. Thus, the counselor may need to provide experiences and resources that would lead to accurate information.

In general, the aim of the counselor is <u>not</u> to persuade them to consider nontraditional careers and lifestyles. Rather, it is to work within their range of acceptability, to be realistically encouraging, and to help them maximize their resources and minimize their constraints. However, the reality

is that no counselor can remove restrictive inequities. "One may deny or camouflage them, blame a woman for their occurrence, or help her identify what she can change and what is structurally rooted in her circumstances" (Fine, 1986, p. 177).

Ethics, Values and Free Choice

I believe that counselors using the expectancy model could be quite effective in devising interventions that would stimulate women to explore a wide range of options. An issue that needs to be raised, however, is should they try? I have three responses to this issue: (1) Yes, (2) No, and (3) Free choice is a myth.

The answer is Yes if the client clearly has predispositions along these lines and counselor intervention and support would help her remove some obstacles, ambiguities, and ambivalences. The answer is No if to do so would be to ask the client to pursue incongruent and aversive directions.

I agree with Gottfredson (1984) that "it is not the counselor's proper role to actively dissuade people from decisions that seem inappropriate to the counselor" (p. 45). To "actively dissuade" clients would be an inappropriate attempt to impose counselor values, and thus, incongruent with the philosophy, aims, and ethical code of the profession. I presume that Gottfredson is mostly concerned about the ethics of encouraging women to consider nontraditional options. I want to point out that her statement is equally applicable to traditional careers and lifestyles. Those of us who have been interested in sex bias can cite research as well as personal experience to document the ways that counselors have actively encouraged women to pursue incongruent traditional occupations.

Clearly, a primary concern underlying the ethical issue is that of the counselor's values. While it is generally agreed that value-free counseling is a myth (Bart, 1971; Sturdivant, 1980), it is a goal that should nevertheless be pursued. I believe that the use of the Expectancy model as a framework for counseling can be helpful in this regard. It takes the focus off traditional versus nontraditional options per se and focuses instead on helping clients to identify variables that are influencing her -- the forces operating on and within her that affect her expectancies and her values and thus her motivation toward certain options and away from others. Once the facilitating and constraining forces are identified, the counselor can then help the client decide what, if anything, she wants to do about them and help her develop strategies for reaching goals that are congruent with her self-schema.

My third answer to the ethical question -- free choice is a myth -- requires a bit of explanation. There are those who have urged counselors to make women aware of all their options, conflicts, and psychological barriers so they can "choose" what they want (Harmon, 1978; Hawley, 1978; Zytowski, 1978). This position assumes that the choices women make can be completely voluntary. I would hope that the expectancy model makes it clear that there are many external constraints for women that place upper limits on free choice. Some choices are simply too costly -- psychologically, socially and physically. Others are simply out-of-awareness due to internalization of societal norms. Laws (1976) notes, for example, that occupational sex segregation is an institutionalized cultural variable. "The outline of the female job ghetto is incorporated into the thinking of those who, as yet, have

not even chosen a future occupation. A sex segregated labor market is part of the culture to which the individual adapts; it is learned without being questioned" (p. 37). To assume that women can "choose" anything they want is to ignore the reality of social, structural constraints and to perpetuate the error of "blaming the victim" (Ryan, 1971).

For Boys and Men

Should we only be concerned about constraints on women's options? Unfortunately, the gender factor in career development is usually interpreted as relevant only to girls and women. Recent writings on men's gender roles (e.g., O'Neil, 1981) and men and career development (Skovholt & Morgan, 1981), make it clear that men are also constrained by societal views and structures regarding gender-appropriate roles and behaviors. We often do not think of men being constrained because they are more likely to fill occupational roles that bring societal rewards -- money and prestige in particular. There are at least two reasons why counselors should also be concerned about gender-roles as they relate to men's career development and lifestyle. First, for a variety of reasons, men will need to consider the impact of their career decisions on other life roles. For example, the father's responsibility in child caretaking is being increasingly emphasized. Also, it is clear that more and more men will be marrying women who are unwilling to automatically give first priority to the husband's career.

Second, it is quite clear that some men do develop nontraditional interests and experience stress and conflict about pursuing these options (O'Neil, 1981). It has been suggested by many that sex role socialization is much stronger and more rigid for boys than for girls. In this sense, men

experience more difficulty than women in breaking out of traditional roles. In short, the Expectancy model is applicable to men as well as to women.

A Final Note

Earlier I asserted that "free choice" is a myth. This myth is related to another error frequently made in interpretation of research on gender differences. That is, we give person-centered motivational-deficit explanations for outcomes that would be more accurately viewed as either the result of societal structural conditions or a result of person-environment interactions. For example, the widely touted "fear of success" research is interpreted as "women are motivated to avoid success." A closer look at this problematic area of research reveals that some women anticipate that negative consequences will accompany success in male-dominated fields. Is this a "motive to avoid success" or "an accurate perception of reality?" (Fitzgerald & Betz, 1983, p. 119). Kanter's (1977) research on the "solo" woman in a male environment makes it quite clear that the gender composition of the group sets off a process that presents almost insurmountable barriers to effective job performance of women. Rather than an internal motivational state, then the so-called "fear of success" may indicate realistic expectations of negative sanctions for gender role deviancy (Riger & Galligan, 1980).

The propensity to give person-centered explanations for social conditions is the result, in part, of two problems in psychological research. First, the traditional psychological research paradigm leads to the study of the person out of context. Thus, we study the personality characteristics of women in nontraditional and traditional careers and then use gender-based explanations to account for the gender-segregated labor market (e.g., "women fear success,"

"women are constrained by their sex role identity," "women are not motivated to achieve"). This approach ignores situationally relevant explanations (Caplan & Nelson, 1973; Riger & Galligan, 1980), as well as the political, economic, and social context (Fine, 1986). It also leads to person-centered interventions (e.g., assertive training for women) based on the idea that women have internal, psychological deficits or skills.

To more clearly demonstrate the absurdity of these motivational interpretations, let us consider the research on achievement motivation.

It seems quite clear that the inclination toward achievement is not consistent across all situations. Simply stated, we value some achievements more than others.

Social norms regarding gender appropriate activities influence our personal values -- they become internalized. Thus, we become motivated toward gender appropriate activities (read -- we expect success and value the outcomes). Now, if we expose people to male valued achievement situations, observe that males make choices toward the activity and women away from the activity, is it accurate to infer that women have a motivational deficit? If the task at hand were a female-valued task and males made choices away from the activity, would we infer males have a motivational deficit? Probably not; rather we might observe that boys don't like or aren't interested in these tasks and we might discuss the effects of socialization.

A different sort of example will make the point perhaps clearer. Stein (1971) studied children's motivation for "boys'" toys, "girls'" toys, and "boys' and girls'" toys. Results were that males concentrated their time on boys' toys and females divided their time equally among all the toys. Is this

a deficit in female motivation, or is this male conformity or perhaps avoidance of (feminine) success? (O'Neil, 1981). Perhaps this example seems absurd, but I think not. Several studies have shown that boys and men are more likely to state preferences for gender-typed activities than girls. Is this viewed as a motivational deficit? A parsimonious person-environment interaction interpretation would be that boys and girls will be likely to avoid activities that society teaches them are inappropriate for their gender.

To summarize -- let us stop committing the "vulgar error" (Laws, 1979) of inferring motivation from behavior (unless we use an explicit model of motivation) and attributing causes for social inequities to person characteristics. "Any study which assesses psychological characteristics of women that encourage women to 'choose' a traditional job or 'reject' a nontraditional job can only be conducted after the woman's economic and social realities, alternative vocational opportunities and supports for working are explored. A women's psychology (and a man's) is influenced by, and not the primary predictor of, these features of her life" (Fine, 1986, pp. 174-175).

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Table 1

Expecancy Model of Women's Motivation Toward Nontraditional Career/Lifestyle Options

I. Expectancy -- Subjective probability of attainment

- A. Self-efficacy
  - 1. Career self-efficacy expectations
  - 2. Lifestyle self-efficacy expectations
- B. Perceived structure of opportunity for self and social category (socioeconomic class, gender, race
- C. Perceptions of environmental/situational supports and constraints.

II. Valence -- Attractiveness of options

- A. Beliefs about outcomes associated with occupational and lifestyle roles
- B. Desirability of outcomes associated with occupational and lifestyle roles

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American School Counselors Association

Iowa Association For Counseling and Development

Iowa School Counselor Association

Northwest Iowa Personnel and Guidance Association

Iowa Career Education Association

South Sioux City, Nebraska Board of Education

Nebraska School Board Association

State of Nebraska Accreditation and Certification Committee for Public Schools

South Sioux City, Nebraska PTA

First Lutheran Church; South Sioux City, Nebraska

A Reaction to:

Gender Influences In Career Development: Motivation for Nontraditional Career and Lifestyle Options

by Linda Brooks

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Gender Influences in Career Development:

Motivation for Nontraditional Career and Lifestyle Opinions

by Linda Brooks

A Reaction by Ronald M. Bartels

Introduction

It has been a stimulating and rewarding academic experience to serve as a reactor to this paper which focuses on the Gender Influences in Career Development. In developing my reactive thoughts and comments, special mention should be made of two professional counterparts who willingly studied and responded to the paper. They are Gerry Alberts, Elementary Guidance/Career Consultant and Nancy Lawrence, Talented and Gifted Consultant at Western Hills Education Agency. Gerry has extensive experience in elementary career education while Nancy has special interest in career development programming for talented and gifted students.

Hopefully, open, honest, and uninhibited responses can be shared by both sexes as we discuss this pertinent and meaningful document. The nature of the topics as it relates to gender may inhibit natural and honest responses from both sexes. After reading and discussing the topic with my two professional peers, we all shared a feeling that we didn't want to be interpreted as sexist and, therefore, were most careful in interpretation of our verbal responses.

In reacting to the paper, I will attempt to divide the comments into 4 categories. They are (1) Reactions to the Expectancy Model; (2) Omissions and/or Need for Further Study; (3) Implications for Counseling; and (4) Potential Discussion Questions.

Ronald Bartels

General Reactions to the Paper: Specifically The Expectancy - Value Model

While recognizing the danger of summarizing before beginning, this reactor considers the paper, Gender Influence on Career Development: Motivation for Nontraditional Career and Lifestyle Options, to be a document which focuses on a strong need while providing a theoretical framework which can be easily integrated into the career counseling process.

There is a strong need for such a model which focuses on the variables of gender influences in career development. One quickly recognizes that traditional career theory is highly void of considerations for gender influences. In some situations, the traditional career theories include constructs which apply to gender influence, but little or no mention is made of gender considerations. This motivational model provides the career counselor an opportunity to expand the counseling interventions with the young woman based on specific constructs. Previously, most gender related counseling has focused on vague concepts and ideas. Counselors have participated in eliminating sex-bias career information, participated in various sex equity career events and activities, and have counseled with young women about non-traditional careers. Through these processes, counselors have not been provided an effective or structured theoretical model. The Expectancy Model provides a theoretical framework in which career counselors can target motivational variables that will help young women maximize their resources and minimize their constraints.

This theoretical model has great potential for practical use because (1) it is divided into understandable components and (2) the individual components can be explored with the counseling client one at a time. The model appears to be "counselor friendly". For example, the counselor might focus on factors of motivation as related to self-efficacy during one interview and focus on attractiveness of options as related to family patterns during a later interview.

This Expectancy Model provides the career counselor specific intervention topics for counselor use. For example, instead of discussing self-concept or self efficacy in general terms with the young woman, this model provides four sources of information that affect self-efficacy expectations. The theory targets specific motivational variables that can be explored with the client.

This reactor agrees with the writer relative to the need to distinguish between expectations for attainment and attractiveness or anticipated gratifications. In addition, this reactor agrees that the perceived attractiveness and attainability of nontraditional career options are not viewed separately from the attractiveness and attainability of lifestyle options. That is, career decision making is intimately connected with family issues. Although possibly on a lesser scale, it should be recognized that the previous statement would affect the career decision-making of males as well.

The Attractiveness of Options component of this model focuses on the real and difficult gender issues facing the young female. Although this paper focuses on the female, the probability of attainment part of the model seems most appropriate for young men. As the model focuses on the attractiveness of options component, we find these factors are those which require great exploration, thought and decision making on the part of the young woman pursuing a nontraditional career. A counselor utilizing this model may deem it appropriate to develop a specific list of intervening variables that will assist in working with the female client. Such a list might include factors of: (1) Marriage; (2) Children; (3) Husband's role; (4) Social class; (5) Congruence with femininity; (6) Lifestyle and (7) Opportunities for advancement.

As previously stated, I believe this theoretical model is "counselor friendly" and the model outline permits the counselor to make practical use of the model. The professional counselor should recognize the need to be thoroughly familiar with theory outline. In addition, the model appears to be appropriate for use with both men and women.

Omissions and/or Need for Further Study

This reactor would like to respond to several issues which were not fully defined or emphasized in the study. These reactions are not disagreements with the paper, but rather considerations for further definition and study.

The first relates to the term "nontraditional careers". What is the classification for nontraditional careers? Mention is made of the terms nontraditional, traditional and neutral careers. There appears to be a need for a more clear classification and/or definition of nontraditional careers as they relate to gender choice. Would the term nontraditional refer to the extreme nontraditional career choices of women or would it refer to all careers outside the general clustering of nurses, teachers, secretaries and retail clerks.

A second question arises relative to nontraditional careers. Should the term "nontraditional" even be verbalized during the career counseling process with a client. The term "nontraditional" may denote to the female client that such careers will provide impossible challenges, will place one in a strange category, will make one a "weirdo" among peers and will place one in a completely unforeseen new world. It would seem appropriate that these actual and real nontraditional careers for both females and males be verbally explored with clients in a manner similar to the exploration of traditional careers. The probability of attainment and attractiveness of options components of the Expectancy Model

can be the theoretical basis for the career counseling process without over verbalizing the term non-traditional.

The writer does present the following statement as it relates to the framework of counseling. The statement is: "The Expectancy Model takes the focus off traditional versus nontraditional career options per se and focuses instead on helping clients identify variables that are influencing her -- the forces operating on and within her that affect her expectancies and her values and thus her motivation toward certain options and away from others". This reactor fully agrees with the statement.

Brief mention is made relative to the influence of family members upon the career choice of the young female. The sociological career research of Dr. Luther Otto in developing a program "Tomorrow's Careers for Today's Youth", (Otto, 1984) reveals that parents are the most influencing individuals in helping a young adult choose a career.

Career counselors consistently reveal the strong influences that family members place on students to pursue specific careers. Of special emphasis is the influence of mothers, grandmothers and aunts upon the young woman as she pursues a particular career. Many of these influences focus on traditional careers.

The Expectancy Model provides an excellent theoretical model to utilize in counseling with the young female and her parents or with extended family members of the client. In addition, a brief summary of key components of the Expectancy Model could be written in lay person terms to assist family members to openly and objectively explore career options with the young female.

One can quickly visualize how beliefs about outcomes, desirability of outcomes, perceptions of environment and structure of opportunity of the Expectancy Model can provide excellent target points for discussion during student-parent career interviews. The constructs of the Expectancy Model can help parents open their own horizons to the career options available to their daughter.

Implications For Counseling

There is great potential for new and meaningful career counseling interventions with both young men and women through the constructs of the Expectancy Model. The specific theoretical components of the model provide the

career counselor an opportunity to design models, activities, materials and topical counseling strategies in helping the client explore a wider range of options. With the organization of the various components of the model, the theory becomes meaningful and manageable. Mentioned earlier by this reactor was the strong need for such a career model or theory which focuses on the variables of gender influence.

As the writer indicates, career choice literature has provided counselors with little or no direction in identifying strategies that will stimulate women to more widely explore careers.

Previous considerations for gender influence in counseling have focused on such topics as (1) neutralizing career information and (2) encouraging counselors to provide special events and activities related to gender influence. Although one can quickly recognize the necessity to eliminate sex bias career information, this task alone does little to actually influence career choice among females. Following the Federal Government's TITLE IX Guidelines and Funding, we found the emergence of many career events for women and many "quick-fix" career grant proposals that have little impact on actual career choices for women. The above mentioned activities have heightened career awareness levels but have not provided intervening variables which can help the client explore her self-efficacy.

The writer's belief that the counselor must complete an assessment of the clients expectations and values before determining strategies seems most appropriate. Realistically, the career counselor is not provided the time to conduct an elaborate assessment of each client. The vocational card sort concept can serve as an excellent counseling tool. A vocational card sort can be most effective in analyzing behaviors, initiating discussion and encouraging in depth career study on the part of the client. In addition, the card sort could be either purchased or developed by the counselor. Another positive attribute of the card sort is that the sorting activity can be conducted in a reasonable time frame. Following the original sorting process, a number of counseling interviews could be conducted based on the results of the card sort.

It is most important for the career counselor to thoroughly understand the components of the Expectancy Model if there are plans to use the model in relation to a vocational card sort or other career counseling activities. It is recommended the career counselor develop a "user friendly" summary card of the Expectancy Model components. The card can be used as an outline for the counselor until such time when the counselor is thoroughly familiar with all aspects of the theoretical model.

A vocational card sort will create numerous topics for discussion. An effective career counselor will prioritize the responses and recognize the need to initially focus on responses which will help maximize the client's resources and minimize the client's barriers.

The Expectancy Model of Women's Motivation Toward Nontraditional Career/Lifestyle Options provides additional theoretical direction by encouraging the career counselor to develop intervening strategies based on both the probability of attainment and attractiveness of options components of motivation.

Listed below are additional considerations as to how the Expectancy Model can direct and assist the career counselor.

(1) The Expectancy Model has manageable and controllable components and sub-topics. This makes the model a counselor friendly model. For example, a counselor may focus on self-efficacy with a client during one interview and perceived opportunity structure during a later interview.

(2) The Expectancy Model is appropriate for both male and female clients.

(3) The Expectancy Model components focus on meaningful topics and subject areas that are important career development constructs. The model constructs would stand alone even if gender was not a consideration.

(4) The specific components of the Model provide the counselor an opportunity to develop specific verbal and written counseling activities which focus on different variables. For example, activities could be developed to explore the 4 sources of information that affect self-efficacy expectations: (a) Performance accomplishments; (b) Vicarious experiences; (c) Verbal persuasion or encouragement and (d) Emotional arousal.

(5) The Expectancy Model components can be effectively used when the career counselor is working with parents of young women.

(6) The Expectancy Model can also assist young women to explore the many options within traditional occupations. Here again, lifestyle efficacy is an important consideration.

(7) The Expectancy Model and its components will create a new level of "creative career thinking" within the minds of young women.

Final Statement

This Expectancy Model of women's Motivation Toward Nontraditional Career/Lifestyle Options presents a new, good, and enlightening approach to analyzing the issues in gender career choice. The Model provides opportunity

for organizing meaningful areas of intervention and research.

To the career counselor, the writer of the paper has provided a most meaningful statement. It is repeated and stated as follows:

"The aim of the counselor is not to persuade them to consider non-traditional careers and lifestyles. Rather, it is to work within their range of acceptability, to be realistically encouraging and to help them maximize their resources and minimize their constraints."

Potential Discussion Questions

(Note: The following questions arose in the mind of the reactor as the Gender Influences on Career Development Paper was studied. The questions are not listed in any particular priority or sequence. Hopefully, several of the questions will create interest for further discussion and study.)

1. To what extent does immediate family and extended family influences affect the various components of the Expectancy Model of Motivation?
2. (a) In relationship to Gender, how do we categorize "traditional", "non-traditional" and "neutral" careers.
   (b) Would traditional careers for women include a very restrictive list? (Example: The "BIG FOUR" - Nurse, Teacher, Secretary and Retail Clerk).
3. Should the terms traditional and non-traditional be eliminated from the counseling vocabulary of career counselors?
4. Why do certain females pursue non-traditional careers with no real concern of sex barriers?
5. What is the potential and/or merit in utilizing married couples as an intervening source of encouragement in helping females explore career values and conflicts?
6. How can the Expectancy Model's - Probability of Attainment and Attractiveness of Options theories help individuals strive for challenging and upward mobility careers within a particular career cluster? (Traditional and non-traditional careers)
7. The Expectancy Model makes it clear there are many external constraints for women that place upper limits on free career choice. How do male "head start" career factors affect female career choice?

8. What unique gender forces are working on and within the male that create stress and conflict in the pursuit of nontraditional careers?

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R E S U M E

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A REACTION TO BROOKS' PAPER

Gender Influences in Career Development: Motivation for Nontraditional Career and Lifestyle Options

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"Ride, Sally, ride" was a popular saying coined a few years ago in recognition of this country's first woman astronaut. The mere fact that Sally Ride reached such a "lofty" pinnacle caused many to realize that women in the United States had finally begun to move into nontraditional careers. This major societal change, however slow in its development, is found in a number of other examples. Sandra Day O'Conner became the first woman Supreme Court Justice in the United States. Jeanne Kirpatrick was this country's first woman ambassador to the United Nations. The American Association of School Administrators will soon have its first woman president, Dr. June Gabler, Superintendent of Schools in Fort Dodge, Iowa. Substantial numbers of women are entering traditionally male-dominated occupations: medicine, law, police work, accountancy, and factory and construction work. This observation is not to mean that women have "arrived" occupationally but to demonstrate that they are moving into many careers where they would not have been found 15 to 20 years ago.

With the advent of the Women's Movement, women have left the home and become employed in a wider range of occupations, many of which were traditionally recognized as "males only" jobs. Studies charting the impact of women in the world of work are numerous and have led to the prediction that by 1990, 9 out of every 10 women can expect to work outside the home at some time in their lives (Farmer and Backer, 1977). Departures from traditional life and work roles by women have been associated with major changes in how they choose and negotiate their personal blend of work and sex roles.

Much has been written in recent years suggesting ways women can be encouraged to become involved in a comprehensive career exploration and career selection process. Programs have been developed and interventions have been designed to ease their transition to the work force. Counselors from many settings have been involved in this movement. Efforts to aid women in their move to the world of work have had numerous successes, but they have also encountered substantial hazards and barriers along the way.

Linda Brooks, in a paper entitled "Gender Influences in Career Development: Motivation for Nontraditional Career and Lifestyle Options," highlights a number of major issues which women and counselors who assist them face in the career decision-making process. Through her study and observations, she concludes that counselors who urge women to explore a wide range of options are faced with two dilemmas. One dilemma relates to the ethics of the counseling profession. The second dilemma considers the "identification of strategies that will be effective in stimulating women to explore more broadly." (p.2). Brooks suggests that both of these dilemmas can be more effectively dealt with if counselors would employ interventions with women which are guided by theory not just a "good idea." She proposes that interventions need to be based on a motivational model and suggests a specific framework for counseling strategies. I will now summarize Brooks' main points and present my reactions.

Before proceeding, however, I need to point out that I was rather discouraged by the number of examples of difficulties women experience in

the career decision-making process as cited by Brooks. At times I felt I was witnessing a doom and gloom pronouncement, and the question that kept occurring to me was: "Is it really this difficult for women who are going through the decision-making process?" Among the seemingly insurmountable problems Brooks notes are the following: (1)"...women are more likely as a group to have low and weak career self-efficacy expectations, especially in regard to nontraditional occupations." (p.8); (2)"...women compared to men undervalue their achievements and more often attribute their success to external rather than internal causes." (Hackett & Betz, 1981); (3) "...men receive more encouragement for career pursuits than women." (p.9); (4) "...women in my generation can recall frequent times when they either minimized their accomplishments, lied about them, ...purposely flubbed their performance in the name of protecting the male ego." (pp.9&10); and (5), "...young women may believe that they must be acceptable to all males and that men disapprove of intelligent, achieving women." (p.14). It is difficult for me to believe that the above affects <u>all</u> women. However, in the context of this paper, that implication is present.

Brooks proposes that a motivational model, more specifically, the Expectancy-Value Model of Motivation should be considered by counselors when assisting women in the career decision-making process. She suggests that this intervention may provide an appropriate response to the notion "...that women will not explore a wider variety of career and lifestyle options unless they are motivated to do so." (p.4) Moreover, she believes that this particular model can be helpful to counselors in that

it offers a response to the two dilemmas mentioned above; the ethical dilemma and the dilemma created by the lack of effective strategies available which encourage women to explore more broadly. The next part of this paper summarizes Brooks' ideas about the dilemmas and her rationale for why this model would be helpful to counselors. I will follow with my agreements or disagreements with Brooks.

Brooks gives three responses to the ethical dilemma of counselors trying to stimulate women to explore a wide range of options: "yes, no, and free choice is a myth." Her "yes" reply is conditioned on the statement "...if the client clearly has predispositions along these lines and counselor intervention and support would help her remove some obstacles, ambiguities, and ambivalences (p.20). Her "no" is supported by the contention that ethically counselors should not encourage "the client to pursue incongruent and aversive directions" (p.20). She expands on these points by contending that this should also be true when counselors are working with women who are exploring traditional careers and lifestyles. I agree with Brooks on both points. Counseling involves a personal relationship between a counselor and another person to assist that person in self-understanding, decision-making, and problem-solving. The counseling process should enable the client to explore all options to the fullest. While the counselor encourages the client as he/she goes through this process, it is not within their province, however, to influence the client's choices.

Brooks' final response to this dilemma is found in the statement "Free choice is a myth." It is her belief that:

> "...the expectancy model makes it clear that there are many external constraints for women that place upper limits on free choice. Some choices are simply too costly--psychologically, socially and physically. Others are simply out-of-awareness due to interrealization of societal norms." (Brooks, p.2)

I disagree with this contention and support those who believe women should be aware of all options, conflicts, and psychological barriers. Women, as well as men, should be encouraged to explore all aspects of all careers and be allowed to choose what they want. To do otherwise, is to pose another ethical dilemma.

Brooks' review of the literature revealed that career choice literature, classic career development theory and research on interventions designed to motivate women to examine nontraditional career options offer little to women and counselors. To overcome this second dilemma, she proposes that the Expectancy Model of Motivation be used by counselors to encourage clients to explore a broader range of options. Within the framework of the model, she suggests a basic three-step process which counselors can utilize.

I agree with Brooks that this intervention has potential for use in counseling women exploring careers. It has a general and flexible framework and is guided by theory. Hopefully, some enterprising, risk-taking counselor/researcher will soon employ the model to determine its usefulness. Before we adopt any new technique in a wholesale manner,

the Expectancy Model of Motivation included, we need to see some evidence that it is more effective than current techniques and practices.

The paper by Brooks has given us much to think about. On the one hand, observations of the workplace tell us that women have been entering all areas of the world of work, witness the accomplishments of Sally Ride, Sandra Day O'Connor, and Jeanne Kirkpatrick. On the other hand, Brooks has reminded us of the many difficulties women face as they make the transition from the home to the working world. Counselors in all settings need to be mindful of this, especially if they are encouraging their clients to explore nontraditional careers. She has also given us a tool, the Expectancy-Value Model of Motivation, which may enhance the career decision-making process. Hopefully, through a greater awareness on the part of counselors of the problems women involved in the career decision-making process face and the use of this intervention model, women will be encouraged to explore a wide array of career and lifestyle options.

Before concluding, I would like to comment on a term found in the title of Brooks' paper. The term I am referring to is "career development."

The term "career development" implies that a process is taking place. Thus, it means that an individual is always in a state of career development. Brooks paper appears to address problems women encounter in choosing a career or lifestyle when they reach adolescence or womanhood. It is my opinion that to assist women in career decision-making at adolescence or later may be too late.

There is growing evidence which suggests that guidance, including career guidance, should be provided to children at an early age. Research indicates that about 50 percent of a child's intellectual development occurs between conception and age four, 30 percent between ages four and eight, and 20 percent from ages 8 to 17. Meeks noted that a child's low self-image when entering school can create barriers to future growth. Much more evidence can be found in the literature to support this notion.

Research on career development reflects a strong need for systematic career planning that begins with the elementary school youngster (Herr, 1970; Holland, 1966; Osipow, 1968; Super, 1965). This research also concludes that career development should be developed upon a number of broad-based experiences through which youngsters can become more aware of the world of work. As Gysbers, Miller, and Moore (1973) contend: "The challenge....is to facilitate career consciousness at all educational levels." (p.4).

Despite the limited research on the impact of career guidance and related activities on elementary age students, some positive results have been found. Cramer, Wise & Colburn (1977) reported positive results in a study of the effectiveness for eighth grade girls of a short "mini-course" designed to modify some of their stereotyped attitudes about vacations and make them more informed about career choices. Gregg & Dobson's (1980) study of first and sixth grade girls found that Children accepted both men and women working in a variety of occupations. They found no significant difference between boys and girls in assigning

occupational roles to men or women. Evidence can also be found on the positive effects elementary guidance has in helping children to improve their self-concept, to improve motivation, and to learn decision-making and problem-solving skills.

In summary, this writer believes that through this paper Brooks has made an important contribution to women who are about to or are going through the career decision-making process. Not only does it provide an awareness of the barriers and constraints a woman may face while going through this process but it suggests a model which can be used which may make the process more meaningful. This writer/reactor believes, however, that in addition to employing the strategy as proposed, it is also the responsibility of counselors to see that sequentially designed and developed career development activities should be extended to all youngsters, beginning at the kindergarten level.

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THEORY INTO PRACTICE

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FRIDAY P.M.

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Using Career Theory in Your Work: A Professional Obligation

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> Theoretical ideas serve an indispensable function in career guidance practice, especially in the fundamental tasks of problem identification and intervention design. Formal career development theories provide alternative perspectives for framing practical problems. (Jepsen, 1984, pp. 153-154)

Why study theory? What does theory have to do with practice? Most of the courses I took were too theoretical! Theory gets in my way when I an trying to listen to and understand clients!

These and similar questions and comments are heard frequently when counselors get together and discuss their current work and previous training. Why are these questions raised and comments made? Partly because there is, in fact, a gap between theory and practice. Most books and articles describe theory. Fewer books and articles describe theory and explain how theoretical constructs can be used in career counseling or in other career practices.

It is the purpose of this paper to address this gap by suggesting how career theory can help us understand clients' behavior, form tentative or working hypothesis (diagnoses), and select appropriate

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interventions based on these hypothesis to assist clients to reach their goals or solve their problems. To accomplish this purpose the first part of the paper will present a way to describe the career counseling process. This will be followed by a discussion of how contructs from career theory, when placed in the framework of the career counseling process, can serve as cues or prisms to help interpret and understand client behavior. Finally, a technique called the Life Career Assessment will be presented and discussed showing how a theory based procedure can be useful in career counseling.

The Career Counseling Process

A number of writers have described what is involved in the career counseling process beginning with Parsons (1909) and Williamson (1939, 1965) up to the present (Brooks, 1984; Crites, 1981; Kinnier and Krumboltz, 1083; Reardon, 1984; Super, 1983, 1984). Of the contemporary writers, Crites, Kinnier and Krumboltz, and Super, in particular, have provided descriptions of the phases and elements of this process.

Crites (1981) described the process of career counseling as involving diagnoses, problem clarification, problem specification, and problem resolution. He suggested that making a career choice, the acquistion of decisional skills, and enhanced general adjustment are often seen as the goals of career counseling. Finally, he pointed out that to reach these goals, interview techniques, test interpretation, and occupational information are the methods generally used as the career counseling process unfolds.

Kinnier and Krumboltz (1984) focused on three basic phases in their model of career counseling; assessment, intervention, and evaluation.

During the assessment phase the counselor and client work on relationship development, agreement about the structure of the counseling sessions, and agreement about the goals of counseling. Problems exploration and identification are part of the assessment phase. Part of the counseling sessions involves identifying obstacles that clients need to overcome. The intervention phase consists of the activities that counselor and client think will help alleviate the client's concern or reach the client's goal. Finally, during the last phase, evaluation, the client and counselor evaluate how well the interventions worked.

In an article published in 1983, Super made the point that career assessment, based on traditional methodology, was useful but not sufficient to encourage, support, and help people become active career planners and decision makers. To counteract the insufficiencies found in traditional models, Super (1983) recommeded that we consider a new model he called the developmental assessment model. In it, Super encompassed traditional methodology but also brought into focus work salience and career maturity. In addition, he brought into focus the need to assist individuals in the assimulation of self and environmental information. His model was published first in 1983 and then again in 1984 in an expanded version. (Super, 1983, 1984).

For the purposes of this paper the career counseling process is envisioned as having two major phases and a number of subphases or elements. In outline form, the career counseling process appears as follows:

I. Client goal or problem identification, clarification, and specification.

A. Establishing a client-counselor relationship including client-counselor responsibilities.

B. Gathering client self and environmental information to understand the client's goal or problem.

1. Who is the client?

a. How does the client view himself/herself, others, and his or her world?

b. What language does the client use to represent these views?

c. What themes does the client use to organize and direct his or her behavior based on these views?

2. What is the client's current status and environment like?

a. Life roles.

b. Life settings.

c. Life events.

C. Understanding client self and environmental information by sorting, analyzing, and relating such information to client's goal or problem through the use of

1. Career development theories

2. Counseling theories

3. Classification systems

D. Drawing conclusions - making diagnoses - forming hypotheses

II. Client goal or problem resolution

A. Taking action through interventions such as counseling techniques, testing, and career and labor market information

B. Developing an individual career plan.

C. Evaluating the impact of the interventions used; did they resolve the client's goal or problem?

1. If goal or problem was not resolved, recycle.
2. If goal or problem was resolved, close the counseling relationship.

These phases and elements may take place during one interview or may unfold over two or more interviews with clients. Also, while these phases and elements logically follow one another on paper, in actual practice they may not. There often is a back-and-forth flow to the process. Finally, not everyone who seeks help wants or needs to go through the full process of career counseling. Some may want only a little assistance, preferring instead to handle the remainder of the process alone.

Goal or Problem Identification, Clarification, and Specification

This phase of the career counseling process has four subphases or elements: establishing the client-counselor relationship and client-counselor responsibilities; gathering client self and environmental information; understanding client self and environmental information; and drawing conclusions (making diagnoses). Before these subphases or elements are discussed in detail, however, note the use of the words goal or problem. Some clients seek help to improve the quality of their lives. No problems are present, but a goal of self-improvement is. At the same time, other clients are in difficulty, have problems, and need and want assistance to solve them. The point is that you start where your clients are. Do not assume there is a problem when none may exist. Some clients want information only, not counseling. On the other hand, other clients may ask for information initially but later may talk about a problem that is troubling them.

There may be an initial testing time to see if it is safe to discuss a problem with you.

Sometimes, however, goal or problem identification is straightforward. A client wants information about jobs in the local labor market because the clients wants to find a job that pays more. No feelings of anxiety, insecurity or frustration are evident. At other times, problem or goal identification is more complex. The need for information aobut jobs may be mixed with emotional issues, issues relating to family pressures and personal concerns about self-worth. The focus is on both personal-emotional concerns and career concerns.

Establishing the Client-Counselor Relationship. If there is any one concept that is generally agreed on in counseling literature, it is that a positive, productive relationship between client and counselor is a basic and necessary condition, if counseling is to be effective. Much has been written about the characteristics of such a relationship and the skills counselors need to bring it about, so time will not be spent here to discuss these characteristics and skills. It is important to remember, however, that listening and empathizing skills are especially important, as is the need to show clients that we are interested in them and their needs, concerns, and possibilities. It also is important to remember that once positive, productive relationships are established, they need to be nutured throughout the duration of the career counseling process.

Finally, this is the time when the nature, structure, and possible results of career counsleing are discussed with clients. What are the client's expectations? In what time frame is the client working? What

can be expected realistically? What responsibility does the client have in the relationship? These are similar questions need to be raised and addressed so that you and your clients can reach a common understanding concerning the nature, structure, and expected results of career counseling.

Gathering Client Self and Environmental Information. At the same time that a relationship is being established, the task of gathering client self and environment information begins. This is necessary to help understand the goal or problem the client wants to work on or for which the client is being referred. Kinnier and Krumboltz (1984) pointed out that although the ways this is done vary according to counselor style and theoretical orientation, the opening questions are similiar. "Who are you?, What is troubling you?, Why have you decided to seek counseling now?, Tell me more about yourself and what you want, and What do you want to gain from counseling?" (p. 308) are typical opening questions that all counselors ask in one form or another.

Concurrent with relationship development, the key process of listening, understanding, and interpreting begin to unfold. This is important because whatever techniques you use in goal or problem identification, clarification, and specification, the ability to systematically gather, understand, and interpret information clients share and the behavior they exhibit is basic to the entire process. Listening skills are important, but more is involved. Listening must be done with understanding so that the information clients persent and the behavior they exhibit during goal or problem identification, clarification, and specification can be analyzed and interpreted.

How is listening with understanding achieved? It is achieved through an in-depth knowledge of theories of human behavior and human growth and development which, in turn, provide the necessary language and constructs to explain the behavior exhibited by clients. It is achieved by drawing upon as many different theories of human behavior and human growth and development as possible.

Drawing Conclusions: Making Diagnoses. As you are gathering, understanding, and interpreting client information and behavior during career counseling, you begin to draw tentative conclusions about the meaning of such information and behavior. These tentative conclusions are called diagnoses. Conclusions or diagnoses are not one-time labels applied for all time. They are, instead, hypotheses that you substantiate, modify, or discard as the career counseling process unfolds.

Crites (1981) suggessted that there are three types of diagnoses that you may want to consider: differential, dynamic, and decisional. Differential diagnoses, the first type, is the identification and categorization of client goals or problems. Categories such as undecided, indecisive, and incongruent are often used. Although differential diagnoses answers the question, what is the client's problem or goal, dynamic diagnosis, the second type, focuses on why- on what is going on. The focus is on determining the causes or reasons for the client's problem or goal. For example, a client, differentially diagnosed as undecided, may lack informtion, whereas a client diagnosed as indecisive may have anxiety, self-doubts, and hold a number or irrational beliefs. In the latter case, the use of information alone as

an intervention strategy may not be sufficient. In decisional diagnosis, the third type, attention turns to clients' approaches to decision making. It focuses on understanding the processes/sequences clients use to arrive at choices. In this type of diagnosis, clients' use of (or lack of the use of) decision-making strategies is assessed.

Client Goal or Problem Resolution

Taking Action. The reason for identifying, clarifying, and specifying clients' goals or problems is to find ways to resolve them through appropriate interventions. Once clients become aware of the nature of their goals or problems, the focus of career counseling turns to you, and your clients becoming actively involved in goal or problem solutions (Crites, 1981). Here the keys are the diagnoses or tentative conclusions reached as to the nature and structure of the goals or problems because the diagnoses made determine the choices of interventions that are to be used. Test data, personal information, career and labor market information, and a variety of counseling techniques all play a part in how and when problem or goal resolution occurs. For example, tests and their use in career counseling are an integral part of the process, not something separate. They aid in the process of self-understanding, and assist people in comparing themselves with people in occupations. Crites (1981) said it this way:

> It (test interpretation) provides the client with relevant information for making a specific career choice: it models decision skills and how they can be used in problem solving: and it contributes to better adjustment through greater self-understanding and resultant self-confidence in coping effectively. (p.189)

In addition, providing career and labor market information can serve to instruct individuals about the realities of the work world and about themselves. Exposure to career and labor market information also can motivate individuals to explore new options because such information may open up new possibilities. Finally, career and labor market information can help individuals adjust by helping them develop a balance between their needs and wants and occupational supply and demand in the labor market.

Developing an Individual Career Plan. When clients begin gathering and organizing information, it can become a vehicle for them to relate and apply the information they have gathered and organized to their career planning and decision making. They may find that by putting information together in certain ways and in certain categories, relationships become apparent that were not apparent before. Self-appraisal information and experience auditing and cataloging often can be translated directly into job-related knowledge, attitudes, and skills. When these relationships are seen and understood, client self-confidence and self-worth may be increased (Gysbers, 1983).

Evaluating the Impact of Interventions and Closing the Counseling Relationship. During the goal or problem identification, clarification, and specification stage, you and your client determine what the cleint's goal or problem is. Then, during goal or problem resolution, a decision is made about appropriate interventions to attain the client's goal or alleviate the client's problem. The final phase of goal or problem resolution is assessing changes that may have occurred and evaluating the impact of the interventions used. One way to accomplish this is to

have the client review and summarize what has taken place during the career counseling process. Then you can add your own review and summary.

During the summary, you and your client may find that there is some unfinished business. Your client may need more information or more time to consider and reflect on the information already available. As a result, you may recycle to the same interventions to allow more time for consideration and reflection, or you may try other interventions.

Also, during the summary, you may find that your client is unsure about whether or not he or she is ready to close the counseling relationship. If you sense, this, then these possible feelings of insecurtity need to be addressed. You may want to open up this topic by saying, "It seems as if we have achieved what we wanted to achieve during our time together. Sometimes when people reach this point, having made some of the changes you have made, they wonder if they are ready to handle new situations. Could it be that you feel this way?" If you sense this is the case with your client, then these feelings need to be addressed directly as a part of closing the career counseling process. Part of closing the process is working through any emotional investment associated with the career counseling relationship.

How Do Career Theories Help Us In Making Diagnoses?

For our purposes, we are using career theories to understand human behavior. Hence, you can analyze the data you have gathered in career counseling through the lens of career theory, searching for clues and ideas to help you and your client identify, clarify, and specify their goals and problems. Clues and ideas also are sought for goal or

problems resolution. Such analyses require the use of as many models of human behavior as possible. Career theories are important, but so are other theories of human behavior. For example, other specialties within the field, such as marriage and family counseling, have something to say about career problem identification and career counseling techniques. (Zingaro, 1983).

The trait-oriented and cognitive theories are especially helpful in the diagnosis of career problems and concerns individuals may have. Trait-oriented theories are based on differential psychology. In fact, the concept of diagnosis as the differential classification of the characteristics of the career concerns and problems of individuals (Crites, 1981) arises from differential psychology. Diagnostic statements such as unrealistic (trait-factor) and incongruent (Holland's theory, 1985) are examples of differential categories.

Cognitive theories have added the language of reflective judgement stages and the ways we process information to our diagnostic language. For example, a person might be differentially diagnosed as being in the stage of dualism. This is substantially different than a diagnosis of a person being in the commitment within relativism stage. The process of career counseling, the outcomes sought, and the methods used would be quite different.

Cognitive theories also are helpful with dynamic diagnosis. They help us understand, form a cognitive perspective, the underlying reasons for behavior. Lewis and Gilhousen (1981) illustrated this fact by suggesting that some career problems may have underlying irrational beliefs. For example, people who are differentially diagnosed as

indecisive may be indecisive because of the irrational belief that they must be perfect. Because this is not possible, no action can be taken, and thus, these people may appear to be indecisive.

Socioecomic, personality, and developmental theories are all helpful in making diagnoses. In particular, decision-making theories suggest possible framework by which to judge individuals' decision-making skills. Other theories provide ideas concerning what to look for in individuals' growth, development, and environment that will help in understanding the behavior people use to discover their identity. For example, an understanding of an individual's family and its values will help us understand the value structure that underlies the individual's choices. This is particularly important as it relates to sex role stereotyping and occupational selection.

How Do Career Theories Help Us Carry Out the Process of Career Counseling?

During goal or problem identification, clarification, and specification, Crites (1981) suggested that "the client and counselor collaboratively identify the attitudes and behaviors in the career problem that are interfering with the decision-making process and together they survey the range of possible solutions" (p. 178). During this period, career theories can be helpful. For example, information about a person's background (where and how a person grew up) that comes from socio-economic and development theories could be helpful. Suppose a person is diagnosed as being indecisive and anxious. During problem clarification and specification, it might be learned that the person wants to return to school but the person's children and spouse do not

want that. In this case, the transition approach in the adult career development theory may prove helpful in clarifying and specifying the problem and in pointing toward a possible solution.

How Do Career Theories Help Us Reach the Expected Outcomes of Career Counseling?

Crites (1981) suggested that there are at least three major outcomes of career counseling - making a choice, acquiring decision-making skills, and enhancing general adjustment. The knowledge we gain from theories is helpful to us in dealing with each of these outcomes.

To enable you to help individuals make a career choice, trait-factor theory offers interest, aptitude, values, and career maturity assessment. Socioeconomic theory offers understanding about possible environmental pressures (parents, peers, spouses). Personality and developmental theories suggest possible patterns of previous behavior that may facilitate or hinder choice making. And finally, cognitive theories provide insight intohow individuals process and use information in choice making.

Your ability to assist individuals in acquiring decision-making skills can be increased by the knowledge provided by career theories. An obvious theory to turn to is the decision-making theory. It provides you with possible models to use. It outlines and explains the decision-making process so that you can use this knowledge with individuals. Some may need direct help in how to go about making decisions. Others may need help in how they process information as they make decisions. In such cases, cognitive theory provides some answers

concerning how to work with the problems people may have in processing information.

The third outcome is general adjustment. Since work roles, work settings, and work-linked events play a substantial part in our lives, attention to job (work) adjustment is critical to overall general adjustment. A number of theories provide good insights into this issue. Holland's theory (1985) helps us understand the relationship between personlaity and work environments. His concept of congruence is an important one. Developmental theories also help us, particularly the concept of developmental tasks. Understanding of the tasks to be performed and how the person has performed them provides some insight into the nature of a person's adjustment. Obvious also is the concept of career maturity or for adults, career adaptability. Instruments are now available to help us obtain measures of career maturity and hence a notion of the general adjustment of individuals. Finally, there is decision-making theory. Tiedeman and O'Hara's model (1963) examines the processes that lead up to a choice as well as what happens once a person is on the job. They use such terms as induction, reformation, and integration to describe the phases workers may go through as they deal with job adjustment and advancement. The concept of role conflict is a useful construct to help explain and remedy job adjustment problems and issues.

The Life Career Assessment

The Life Career Assessment (LCA) provides a particularly useful structure around which to explore who the client is and what the client's current status and environment is like. The LCA is designed to

provide insight into clients' levels of functioning in various life roles as well as to yield information about how they interact with their environment. It also is useful because it helps establish the context and background for the clients' initial statements of a goal or problem. As you work with the LCA, more concise statements of a client's goal or problems often emerge, and hence, clearer understanding of the client's goal or porblem and the dynamics that may be involved (goal or problem clarification and specification).

Concurrent with or subsequent to the use of the LCA, other assessment procedures such as standardized tests of interest, work values, aptitudes, and career maturity may be used. The advantage of using the LCA first is that it provides a basis for understanding the client's goal or problem as well as for making a decision about what ypes of standardized tests to use, if any. It also provides the opportunity to assess clients' marturity and readiness to benefit from the use of standardized tests. This helps remedy, at least in part, the criticism of a major assumption of the traditional matching model of career assessment and counseling. The assumption is the client "who are assessed are all sufficiently mature vocationally to have mature and stable traits" (Super, 1983, p. 557).

Rationale

The LCA is designed to help us understand the relationship individuals have to their social environment. It is based on the Individual Psychology of Adler who divided an individual's relation to the world into three parts, (a) work, (b) social relations, and (c) love. These three ties which the individual has to the outside world

pose three corresponding problems. Solving these three problems is a life-long task.

The three problems cannot be solved separately, for they are intertwined. A change in one problem influences the others as well. A difficulty with one part of life implies comparable difficulties in the rest of one's life. The problems of life cannot be solved separately, Although it may appear otherwise, a person's life is actually quite intergrated in this regard. Admittedly, individuals are not always aware of their approach toward life, and may not understand the underlying consistencies that exist. They may choose, rather, to dwell on apparent contradictions which serve to further obscure the line along which they are developing.

The first step in counseling, from this perspective is to clarify the person's fundamental approach toward problems of life. This is the main purpose of the Life Career Assessment. Assessing an individual's approach to the three problems of life provides a concrete way of anlayzing and synthesizing a client's movement in life. This assessment is a cooperative endeavor which not only helps counselors understand clients, but also helps clients better understand their own life themes that reveal their unique sense of the meaning of life. By identifying themes, we can begin to understand individuals' approaches to life.

The Assessment Outline

CAREER ASSESSMENT

1. Work experience (part/full-time, paid/unpaid)
   * last job
     liked best about
     disliked most about
   * same procedure with another job

2. Educational progress and problems
   * general appraisal
   * likes best about
   * dislikes most about
   * repeat for levels

3. Recreational area
   * leisure time activities
   * social life (within leisure context)
   * friends (within leisure context)

TYPICAL DAY

1. Dependency - independence
   * relies on others
   * insists on someone else making decisions

2. Systematic - spontaneous
   * stable routine
   * persistent and attentive

STRENGTHS AND OBSTACLES

1. Three main strengths
   * resources at own disposal
   * what do resources do for them

2. Three main weaknesses
   * related to strenghts
   * related to themes

SUMMARIZE

1. Agree on life themes

2. Use client's own words

3. Relate to goal setting

Career Assessment

The career assessment portion of the interview is divided into three parts; (a) work experience, (b) educational progress and problems, and (c) recreation. To assess work experience, ask the client to describe the last job in which he/she was employed. It does not really matter whether or not the job was part-time or full-time, or even

if it was paid or unpaid. After the tasks have been described ask the client what he or she liked best about the job and what he or she disliked about the job. This same procedure should be repeated for at least on other job. As the like and dislike themes are stated they should be repeated, clarified, and reflected so that the client is aware of the threads running through them.

To explore educational progress and problems ask the client for a general appraisal of school. You can focus on specific information by asking what the client liked best about high school and what was disliked most. This same procedure should be repeated for elementary school. Once agian, themes will appear. Usually these themes are consistent with the themes that appeared in the exploration of work experience, and they should also be repeated, clarified and reflected to the client.

To assess the recreational, ask the client what he or she does with his or her leisure time. It is important to note whether or not the recreational activites are consistent with his or her work and educational themes or in contrast with them. This is also a good time to explore love and friendship relations. Exploring a clients social life within the context of what is done with one's leisure time is a relatively nonthreatening way of exploring this sometimes sensitive area. There is no intention of a gathering inimate information; the intention is rather to discover how social relations reflect ones life style. Does the client have many friends, few, or none? Does the client make the decisions about leisure activities that are done with friends, or does he/she follow the suggestions of others?

Typical Day

The purpose of the typical day exploration is to discover how clients organize their lives. This assessment can be made by asking clients to describe their "typical" day in a "step-by-step" fashion. One of the things to look for is whether or not the person is independent or dependent. Do they get themselves up in the morning or rely on someone else to wake them? Do they do things alone or insist on having someone with them at all times? Do they organize their lives systematically or respond to each day spontaneously? (Systematic individuals tend to do the same thing day after day in a fairly stable routine, while spontaneous individuals may not do the same thing twice.)

Strengths and Obstacles

The strengths/obstacles section consists of asking clients what they believe to be their three main strengths and three main obstacles. This assessment gives direct information about the problems that clients are dealing with and the resources they have at their disposal to help them. It should be noted that clients sometimes have trouble relating strengths they may have. To assist them, ask the client to look at roles they play (student, worker, etc.) and the skills they use to carry out these roles. After clients name their three strengths, it is best to probe deeper by asking them what these strengths do for them. For example, if a client lists persistence as a strength, further probing might disclose that it is a strength because it makes him/her keep trying. This kind of information can be a helpful revelation for both the client and the counselor. The same kind of probing and clarification should be done on the obstacles. Clients may find it

easier to come up with problem areas, perhaps because of past failures or low esteem. It is recommended that you help clients look at their obstacles and strengths together. How can their strengths be used to offset their obstacles?

Summary

Each assessment should be closed with a summary. It is most helpful when you ask clients to summarize what they have learned from the session. When the client has finished, you can add any points that seem to be omitted. It is important that you and your clients reach agreement in a summary about their life themes. This agreement is particularly effective when it can be reached using the client's own words and meanings.

A Closing Point

While the Life Career Assessment format looks standardized, there is no prescribed procedure for getting the information. You need to discover your personal style of doing the assessment. You should be flexible enough to shift the format to fit the needs of each individual. In fact, it is preferable to integrate the exploration process into your own style as well as the style of the client to keep the interview from being mechanical.

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Academic Degrees

Ph.D.	University of Wisconsin, Madison	1970	Counseling and Guidance
M.S.	University of Wisconsin, Madison	1963	Counseling and Guidance
B.A.	University of Northern Iowa	1960	Physical Education

Professional Experience:

1970-present	Professor, Counselor Education, University of Iowa.
1977 (fall)	Developmental leave as Visiting Scholar, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey.
1975 (summer)	Visiting Instructor, Department of Educational Psychology, University of Manitoba, Winnepeg.
1970 (summer)	Visiting Instructor, Counselor Education, University of Wisconsin, Platteville.
1969-70	Assistant Director, research project, Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction.
1967-70	Research or teaching Assistant, Department of Counseling and Guidance, University of Wisconsin, Madison.
1964-67	School Counselor, Waterloo Community Schools, Waterloo, Wisconsin.
1964, 1965 (summers)	Counselor, Counseling Department, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee.
1962-64	Research Assistant, Research and Guidance Laboratory for Superior Students, University of Wisconsin, Madison.
1960-62	Teacher-Counselor, Orange Township Community Schools, Waterloo, Iowa.

Faculty and Administrative Load for 1984-1985

Courses Taught Fall Semester, 1984

7X:103	Facilitating Career Development in Schools	(4 s.h.)
7C:255	Vocational Psychology	(3 s.h.)
7C:081	Making a Vocational-Educational Choice	(2 s.h)

Courses Taught Spring Semester, 1985

7C:302	Practicum in Counseling	(5 s.h.)
7C:254	Appraisal in Counseling	(3 s.h.)
7C:081	Making a Vocational-Educational Choice	(2 s.h.)

Courses Taught Summer, 1985

7C:081	Making a Vocational-Educational Choice	(2 s.h.)
7X:103	Facilitating Career Development in Schools	(4 s.h.)

Other Collegiate Assignments 1984-1985
Chair, University Human Subjects Review Committee
Member, University Faculty Senate
Chair, Division Search Committee for Marriage and Family Counseling Position

Current Professional and Academic Association Memberships

* American Association for Counseling and Development
  National Vocational Guidance Association
  American School Counselor Association
  Association for Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development
  Association of Counselor Education and Supervision
* American Educational Research Association
* Iowa Association for Counseling and Development
  Iowa Vocational Guidance Association
  Iowa School Counselor Association
  Iowa Association of Counselor Education and Supervision
  Iowa Educational Research and Evaluation Association

* Meetings attended during academic year 1984-1985

Other Professional Assignments and Activities, 1984-1985

Editor, Vocational Guidance Quarterly
Chairperson, Area Planning Council for Vocational Education
Member, Convention Program Committee, Division E, American Educational Research Association
Chairperson, Program Committee, Iowa Vocational Guidance Association

Publications, 1980-1985:

Froehlich, L. H. and Jepsen, D. A. (1980). Stability and change in self-perception scores over the secondary school years. Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 12, 240-246.

Noeth, R. J. and Jepsen, D. A. (1981). Predicting field of job entry from expressed vocational choice and certainty level. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 28, 22-26.

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Jepsen, D. A. (1985). Review of Kuder Occupational Interest Survey, Form DD. Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance.

Current Research and Special Projects

Paper in Progress: "Predicting Job Satisfactions from Reasons for Vocational Choice"

Paper Submitted: (with W. Grove) "Generalizability of Vocational Decision Making Questionnaire Items and Scales Across Raters and Occasions"

Paper in Progress: "Theory as a Tool in Career Counseling Practice"

Paper Submitted: (with G. L. Stone) "Cognitive behavioral theory and its application to career development"

David Jepsen

Reaction to Gysbers' Paper

Professor Gysbers attempts to address the gap between theory and practice in counseling with a particular emphasis on career counseling. This gap is easy for me to understand in my role as a sometime career counselor, a teacher of future career counselors, and as editor of the Vocational Guidance Quarterly. Furthermore, the "gap" problem is not unique to career counseling (nor education nor psychology, for that matter) but is of primary concern to all professions where the fundamental task is to change some aspect of the social or physical environment. Career counselors attempt to effect changes in the client's career. In Iowa, we are especially aware of the application of theory to agricultural practice, to medical practice, to economic development, to teaching, to conserving natural resources and so forth. Applying theory to practical problems is in the broadest sense a matter of humans using their intellect in order to exercise control over natural forces.

Now some people would prefer not to exercise such control preferring instead to let things unfold "naturally". Others believe that control over social and economic affairs is beyond human capacity and may even go so far as to suggest that people delude themselves into feeling they actually exercise personal control. For example, in the area of career development the frequent criticisms by sociologists and economists that counselors are simply helping people to adapt to social and economic forces that are beyond their personal control. For

those who do retain some faith in the human intellect as a powerful source of change, theories represent our best intellectual efforts to solve general problems through effecting changes. It is left to the practicing counselor to work out practical applications of theory to particular client situations. Professor Gysbers has provided us with useful guidelines in translating the general and theoretical to the particular and practical.

My reaction is divided into three parts corresponding to the sections of the paper. The credits at the beginning of the paper suggest that each section may have developed at different junctures in Prof. Gysbers' productive career.

The section on career counseling process provides the useful outline apparently intended to lay the groundwork for understanding the fundamentals of career counseling. While there's not a whole lot of room to disagree about what constitutes the career counseling process, there are undoubtedly those who would not "buy into" the Gysbers process outline. For my part, I liked the outline because it was orderly, clear, and relied heavily on the problem solving tradition.

On the other hand, if it was intended to address the question at the outset "why study theory?" then I'm not as comfortable with this section of the paper. Theories can be seen as complete systems or as sets of ideas available to the practitioner. In either case, the counselor must make some fundamental choices about which system or which idea from a

theory, is likely to aid in diagnosis, or to guide intervention selection. These strike me as the fundamental issues in the application of theory to practice in career counseling and the outline does not address these issues.

The second section of the paper deals with illustrations of how theory fits within the career counseling process. Once again, Professor Gysbers has done a masterful job of including a wide range of material in brief form and in a clear presentation. The paper relies heavily on brief but clear examples, but brevity may be the quality that concerns me most about this section. I wished for more specific examples that would guide me from the selection of a theoretical idea to its actual implementation. A second concern has to do with the usefulness of theories other than career theories for the career counselor. Gysbers picks examples from marriage and family counseling theories. I do not share his enthusiasm for the contributions of theorists from other fields to understanding career problems. In fact, my general impression is that theorists about other human problems could learn a good deal from becoming more familiar with career development or choice theories. Indeed, it's my feeling that career problems are seldom the central concern of social workers, marriage and family counselors, mental health counselors, and clinical psychologists. Indeed career problems may be viewed as peripheral.

Finally the life career assessment section of the paper provides us with a second outline which may serve to guide us in

understanding a client's career situation in particular career problems. The outline seems comprehensive and useful. It appears to have been developed independently of the career counseling process outline and thus provides us with a more specific set of guidelines when doing the assessment phase of career counseling. With regard to the gap between theory and practice, I was disappointed to find only very general reference to the work of Alfred Adler rather than specific bridges between his considerable theoretical work and the generalized problem of career assessment. Indeed, one might develop a similar outline based on the work of Eric Fromm or perhaps Karen Horney. There has been a recent interest in drawing upon the work of Alfred Adler to aid in understanding careers. Perhaps that work could enhance the life career assessment section.

In conclusion, I still feel that theoretical ideas serve an indispensable function in career guidance practice. The particular way in which ideas guide action remains to be clarified. Professor Gysbers' paper provides us with a perspective on this difficult problem and some of the pieces of the puzzle. "Why study theory?" It is probably still a matter of faith in the human intellect that pushes us to study theory. Counseling, and in particular career counseling, remains one of those marvelously liberated professional endeavors where practitioners have considerable freedom when selecting ideas from theory or experience to guide their everyday work.

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1975-1977	Guidance Counselor, Osage Community School District, Osage, Iowa
1963-1975	Director of Admissions, Wartburg College, Waverly, Iowa
Prior to 1963	Teacher, Coach, Counselor, Garnavillo, Iowa U. S. Army, Radio School Instructor

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

-Executive Director, Iowa Association of Counseling and Development
-Phi Delta Kappa, since 1966, currently Vice President for Membership
-Iowa Career Guidance Curriculum for Student Development--writer/committee member
-Grant writer, NTAEA Area Planning Council; CDEEP Project Director
-External Evaluator, Title III, University of Dubuque
-Admissions Consultant, St. Ambrose College
-President, Northern Trails Education Association
-Chairperson, Iowa Career Education Association
-Vice President, Public Relations Advisory Council for American Lutheran Church Colleges
-Chairman, Iowa ACT Advisory Council
-Chairman, NIACC Vocational Advisory Council
-President, Iowa Association of College Admissions Counselors

EDUCATION

-15 Hours beyond M.A.
-Fenwick English Curriculum Development Workshop
-T.E.S.A. Training (Teacher Expectations Student Achievement)
-Madeline Hunter, Teach Decision Making Workshop
-EBCE Training (Experience Based Career Education)
-Three-week workshop, Harvard University

-M.A. Counseling Guidance, University of Northern Iowa, 1965
-B.A. Physical Education, Wartburg College, 1955

Using Career Theory In Your Work: A Professional Obligation

by Norman Gysbers, Ph.D.

A Response by Vic Pinke, Career Development Coordinator
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The perspective from which I respond to this topic is that of a career development coordinator at an area education agency.

So much of the consulting, counselor roundtable discussion, and programming that we see deals with practical and pragmatic questions. For that reason, the title of this paper which states that it is a professional obligation to use career theory was challenging.

When any one of us observes counseling and/or teaching it is easy to get common agreement on whether the job was effectively done. It is quite a different matter to find a common vocabulary to describe exactly what took place and to agree on what specific research was applied. The gap indeed exists between theory and its application in counseling.

The process described in this paper is focused mainly on individual career choice. Much of the effort of the school counselor today is however, focused on guidance activities that take groups of students through exercises designed to teach a career process that will be used several times in the life of the student.

When almost half of all freshmen enter college with an open major, it's obvious that the objective of high school counseling should be to teach a career development process and not on narrowing down to a specific career choice at the high school level.

It appears that Super's (1983) Model "The Developmental Assessment Model" might be applied to the high school situation as it recognizes the need to aid in the assimilation of self and environmental information.

Some of the best advice Dr. Gysbers gives in the paper is that we must not assume there is a problem, as some clients want information only and not counseling. A client may need aid in the assimilation of the information due to personal and social concerns. Dr. Gysbers also points out the importance of establishing a relationship. It would be easy for a counselor giving group information to neglect the listening and empathizing necessary to convey interest in an individual's needs and concerns.

Dr. Gysbers asks the question, "How is listening with understanding achieved?" His answer is that it is achieved by "drawing upon as many different theories of human behavior and human growth and development as possible." Perhaps this is where the gap between theory and practice is most evident. The theories of human growth and development are taught in counselor education, however, it is my perception that instruction and the literature provide far too few examples. Often not enough supervised application is available to make theory really usable. Education at all levels seems to rely heavily on the transfer of knowledge. More guided practice and more opportunity for collegiality might aid the transfer. Discussion of the application of theory, may make the counselor more effective. Counselors are concerned with their immediate needs, thus find that roundtable discussion focuses largely on the practical and pragmatic.

The National Board for Counselor Certification (NBCC) requires inservice to maintain certification. This offers the potential to reach some counselors. The profession needs someone to take human behavior research through a process of developing a common vocabulary and to develop examples which show specific application to counseling, much like Madeline Hunter has done with learning theory for teachers.

Dr. Gysbers has given us some excellent examples of application of theory on pages 13-15, however the terms used by the various researchers cited varies so much that it is often difficult to assimilate without extensive study. From my perspective, the school counselors who are under the pressure of many assigned duties find little useful information in the scholarly research.

This statement may not sound very scholarly, however I believe it is a reality today.

It is time for efforts on the part of counselor educators to pull together research findings, develop a common vocabulary, and teach counselors how to apply existing research. The pressure on college educators to publish and to do original research seems to hamper efforts at making research usable.

In my opinion, there is a pressing need for the development of continuing education courses for counselors. Staff development programs developed by practicing counselors in cooperation with university researchers could help close the gap between research and practice. Today's conference is a step in the right direction. I applaud the efforts of the organizers of this conference, and if it results in continued effort to close the gap, we will all benefit by becoming more effective, and, more importantly, students will benefit through our efforts.

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Summary
Conference Evaluation
Career Guidance Theory

1. Do you like the format of this conference?

A Great Deal											Not at All	
7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1
5.5	7	1	6	1	9		1		2		1	0

N = 28

Comments:

Would like to have heard more from the presenters in the way of a prepared speech.

Mail papers ahead of the conference and cut the reading time.

Really liked the format - time to study papers and have authors present, however, the size may have prevented everyone who wanted to from participating. Some breakdown into small groups may have counteracted this.

In some presentations, I would liked to have had more introductory comments from the presenters. Expecting us to get all the information out of the paper in one hour of reading is too much.

Yes - but I would have read the materials more thoroughly if I'd received them ahead of time. It's too easy to use our time together to "share/visit" with colleagues.

Liked it better as conference progressed.

I would have preferred to receive the materials before the conference to read before I came.

I have to be honest that the reading time portion was something I could not do.

The interaction among the counselors was very worthwhile.

Would prefer to have the presenters give their presentations rather than me read them.

I thought a lot of good ideas were shared.

The idea of getting "theorists" together for dialogue with "practitioners" was great.

A great surprise - most enjoyable.

A new format for me but very stimulating. Level of discussion was excellent.

2. Did the written presentations provide an appropriate foundation for the discussion which followed?

	Yes												No	
	7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
5.86	5	1	18		1	1	2	1			0		0	N = 29

Comments:

Discussions wandered too much.

Sometimes we were not "on task" - i.e., theory into practice. Seemed (Brown's time) to hit practice without reference to theory - It's really hard not to do this.

With the exception of Brown's.

In most cases, yes. One of the papers was too in-depth, too academic oriented and too theoretical. I feel we need theory as a basis, but we need practical applications.

Gave source for directing thought.

Yes, but I would have liked the paper earlier to be more effective for me. (I do realize this would be difficult.)

Would have been good to have had before coming.

Would have liked then ahead of time.

But really didn't read as I should have.

I believe most participants would have liked the presented papers mailed ahead of time.

Just surprised at all the information I had to digest.

Good input system for me.

3. Did the reactor's paper stimulate your thinking and help to raise questions for discussion?

	A Great Deal												Not at All	
	7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
5.8	1	1	11	2	8		2		2					N = 27

Comments:

Didn't get them read.

While I liked the papers - had a lot of questions before I came - Reaction papers were an excellent idea.

Reactors help to stimulate my thinking in the short time that I had to read all the material.

Gave source for directing thought.

I found them helpful.

3. - Comments continued.

Definitely.

Good plan to start from. I enjoyed the comments of these people on other topics as well.

4. Do you feel you had an opportunity to be a direct participant in the discussions?

	A Great Deal												Not at All	
	7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
6.56	16		7		2									N = 25

Comments:

Had trouble not participating! I tend to talk too much.

Could be as great a participant as I desired. Good opportunity!!

Very much so -- issues raised did provide opportunity for discussions and provoke thoughts.

Very open.

5. Were the time allocations appropriate for the conference?

	Yes												No	
	7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
6.32	14		9		5									N = 28

Comments:

Never felt a time pressure but conference moved right along.

Sessions and timing flowed very well.

Good.

The time spent on reading could have been better used for other discussion.

Could have been done in 1 day with 1-1½ hours per paper.

Probably too much time used to read. Almost impossible to digest this material in one hour.

Very good.

6. Facilities were: 26 good 4 adequate 1 needs improvement

Comments:

Not conducive for discussion or could be head table - better the second day.

Table needed for panel members - perhaps raised on a platform. Small tables facilitated interaction among participants.

I had trouble hearing from people in rear of room (especially women), wonder if small PA mike system would help.

Less noise from cafeteria.

Recorded music was distracting (coming from adjoining room). Have ice water in addition to coffee/tea.

Excellent - good food also - enjoyed conference.

Little warm.

Liked the round tables.

A planned "social" hour at the end of the first day would have been helpful.

7. How valuable was the information presented in the session on Career Theories: An Overview?

A. The Presenter's Paper

	Extremely Valuable 7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	Not at All 1	
5.67	7		10		6		2		2					N = 27

B. The Reactors' Papers

	Extremely Valuable 7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
5.39	2		10		12		2		1					N = 27

C. The Discussion

	Extremely Valuable 7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
5.96	7		15		4		2							N = 28

Comments:

(7B) Especially Don Page's.

No much closer to any answers.

8. How valuable was the information presented in the session on the Trait Factor Theory?

A. The Presenter's Paper

	Extremely Valuable 7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	Not at All 1	
5.15	4		6		11		3		2		1			N = 27

B. The Reactors' Papers

	Extremely Valuable 7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	Not at All 1	
5.12	2		8		9		5		2					N = 26

C. The Discussion

	Extremely Valuable 7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	Not at All 1	
5.19	4		14		6		1		3					N = 30

Comments:

Think we got away from relating the theory to practice and became concerned with practices as they exist. Shows where our concerns were.

Topic was handled in too theoretical approach. Subject is important, but need it to be more practical in presentation.

I felt the discussion got off track. Whose responsibility was it to keep us on task?

It made me think again about trait theories. Easy to forget about these as we work with students.

Again not much to take back to my school.

9. How valuable was the information presented in the session on Gender Influences?

A. The Presenter's Paper

	Extremely Valuable 7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	Not at All 1	
5.96	9		11		5		1		1					N = 27

B. The Reactors' Papers

	Extremely Valuable 7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	Not at All 1	
5.46	2		13		7		3		1					N = 26

C. The Discussion

	Extremely Valuable 7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
6.00	9		10		5		2							N = 26

9. Continued.

Comments:

Really new (to me) and stimulating.

Good - need more of this.

A little bit out of date - think we are doing much better in schools - will take another generation to make a complete change.

Again - not much to take back to my school.

10. How valuable was the information presented in the session of Theory into Practice?

A. Presenter's Paper

	Extremely Valuable											Not at All		
	7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
6.2	10		10		5									N = 25

B. Reactors' Papers

	Extremely Valuable											Not at All		
	7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
6.0	8		11		5		2							N = 26

C. The Discussion

	Extremely Valuable											Not at All		
	7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
6.06	7	1	10	2	5									N = 25

Comments:

Really top notch - need to get all the expertise others have.

Topic really got down to practical concerns and approaches.

Most useful session.

11. How applicable was the overall conference to you and your work setting?

	Very Applicable											Not at All		
	7	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.5	4	3.5	3	2.5	2	1.5	1	
5.76	6		8		10		1							N = 25

Comments:

Good reminder to review theory.

This year I have (due to Admin. direction) spent very little time on career/vocational/developmental counseling. This conference has given me new resolve to get our Counseling Dept. back on track!

11. Comments - continued.

I'm not sure I'm a theory type person as such, but it did create an awareness of their importance.

Good to generate ideas through discussion - many ideas geared to adult settings.

Would have liked more on recent approaches which take into account economic conditions, cultural and gender differences.

Very important to take time out once in awhile to review what we supposedly learned at one time.

I would attend other periodic UNI Conferences using similar format on other aspects of guidance.

12. Would you favor similar conferences in the future? 19 yes

Comments:

Very much.

Yes. I liked the format. Would it be possible to distribute the presenter's paper before the conference, and have us read the reactors' papers at the conference?

Only 1 reactor was a school counselor. 3 were from AEA's. The others, higher education - would have liked more from school counselor ranks.

The price was right - Good food - Thanks.

Yes. Perhaps with a goal to affect some change in our work setting.

I think so!

I would like to see a more how to rather than theory for next time.

Yes, if condensed down to perhaps one day, 1½ hours on each paper would have been sufficient.

Suggestions:

Send out papers and reactions prior to conference.

Women reactors? Where were they?

There were participants (audience) that I didn't know. How can we overcome this?

Something truly applicable to high school.

Thank you!!

Prefer lecture and discussion rather than reading and discussion.

A planned "social hour" at the end of the first day would have been helpful.

As much advanced notice as possible.

Ideas for future conferences:

Self esteem theory and how to help build it.

How to remodel a guidance program (bring in administration).

Guidance counseling services in the public school setting. Practical suggestions to deal with time structure and techniques.

A conference specifically for the community college and higher ed. peoples.
A conference that gives all practical applications.

Maybe make these available in the summer. It is sometimes tough to get away during the school year.

Helping administration understand role of counselor.

Group work in the school setting - support groups, orientation groups, planning groups.

Develop a model curriculum 9-12.

Ways to affect change in your work setting.

Ways to educate administrators and public to the counselors' role in a school system.

A similar conference on theories of counseling or counseling approaches.

Follow-up with hands on conference on types of programs, components and techniques.

Motivation.

Decision making.

Cultural differences.

Maybe we should be looking at the new state plan for guidance - Thanks. Good conference, Bob.

Actual career activities to see and use.

Practicing counselors present their programs of successful career counseling. Have perhaps 6-8 presenters in a day's conference.

How about "Crisis Intervention Strategies and Techniques"? - Dr. Frank, I really appreciate your tremendous work in putting this conference together.

Something similar to "Updating Counselor Skills" or "Implementing Guidance Curriculum for K-12". Sharing Counselor Methodology.

I enjoyed this meeting a great deal.